SCHOOL LIFE

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1925

MAGDALEN COLLEGE, OXFORD UNIVERSITY, ENGLAND

Two "Scholars" from Each State of the United States of America Attend Oxford University as Beneficiaries of the Rhodes Trust

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CONTENTS

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SCHOOL LIFE

Published Monthly, except July and August, by the Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education
Secretary of the Interior, HUBERT WORK - - - - - *Commissioner of Education,* JOHN JAMES TIGERT

VOL. X WASHINGTON, D. C., MARCH, 1925 No. 7

Training for Navy is Training for Occupations of Civil Life

In Equipment and Variety of Instruction Given, the United States Navy is Greatest Industrial Training Institution in the World. Twenty-five Thousand Men Prepared Annually for Efficient Service. Recruits, Usually Ignorant of Work They Must Perform, are Developed into Skilled Seamen or Artisans. "Deck Divisions" Comprise 58 per cent of a Battleship's Complement. Ninety-six "Ratings" on a Single Ship

By CURTIS D. WILBUR, *Secretary of the Navy*

THAT the Navy is constantly taking thousands of untrained men and boys from civil life and making them a part of its working personnel is so well known that it is accepted by the average person as a matter of fact. He is apt to give little thought to the tremendous problem which is involved. During the past year, about 25,000 recruits were taken into the naval service. Few of these men had any previous training in the work they must perform; most of them had never been aboard a ship.

Those concerned with education will know that somewhere and somehow a tremendous problem of education and training is involved, in making these thousands of untrained men fit to serve as intelligent and effective units of the Navy's personnel. To understand fully the magnitude and complexity of the task involved, one must first have a clear conception of the modern Navy itself and of what it demands of those who make up its personnel.

Intricate Machinery in Modern Vessels

The Navy to-day is essentially an oil-burning Navy. All the battleships, when present approved alterations are completed, the scout cruisers, destroyers, submarines, the tenders, the plane carriers, and the planes themselves burn oil in some form or other. High speed and intricate turbines, motors, and Diesel engines have replaced the old slow-moving reciprocating engines as propelling units. Destroyer turbines develop as much as 30,000 horsepower to drive their 1,500-ton hulls at 35 knots.

It is hardly possible to think of any activity on board ship which is not more or less dependent upon electricity, with the possible exception of the actual training and elevating of small guns. Potatoes are peeled by electrically driven machines. The ice cream which the sailor enjoys so much, and which is no longer considered a luxury even after the ship has been at sea for 10 days, is frozen in the same way. All installations for controlling gunfire, for training turrets, elevating big guns, supplying ammunition, and for firing the guns are electrical. Staterooms and crew's quarters are ventilated by large electric blowers. The larger ships are even steered electrically.

Shops Occupy Much of Space Below Decks

All of the large ships are equipped with complete machine shops, carpenter shops, foundries, refrigerating plants, evaporating and distilling units. There are facilities for coppersmithing and blacksmithing. There are print shops and paint shops and machines for repairing the large amount of canvas still used in the Navy. There is a fully equipped hospital or "sick bay," where the most delicate operation can be performed, even at sea. Torpedoes, mines, machine guns, rifles, and ammunition for all calibers of guns aboard are included in the equipment of all combatant ships.

All of these numerous shops, together with the boiler rooms and engine rooms, take up much of the below-deck spaces of the ship. But in addition to these, even a larger amount of this space is required for the stores normally carried. Everything that may be needed to effect repairs and to make minor alterations is carried in stock—from the smallest bolt or nut to the largest spare bearings. Tons of paint, canvas, wood, steel, fire brick, leather, lead, cement, etc., are carried in bulk, as well as thousands of all kinds and sizes of screws, bolts, nuts, rivets, etc. Storerooms have capacity enough to carry a six-months' supply of these general stores.

But the 1,200 men on a modern dreadnaught must be clothed and fed. At least a 30-day supply of fresh provisions can be carried. Imagine the cold storage on a ship large enough to carry the beef, veal, pork, chicken, eggs, liver, sausage, etc., to feed 1,200 hungry sailor men for 30 days. Think how many large store rooms are required to carry flour, milk, coffee, tea, sugar, tinned and dried fruit for that same period. Even a destroyer with a hundred men aboard can carry a 30-day supply of dry provisions, together with fresh meat, eggs, etc., to feed the crew for 10 days. Submarines can cruise from New London to Panama without replenishing their supply of provisions.

Every Ship a Self-supporting Unit

One must be intimately associated with the development of the Navy to appreciate how complex each type of fighting ship really is, to appreciate how essential it is to the Navy itself and the Nation as a whole, to have these separate fighting units assembled into a well-trained, well-organized, well-balanced fleet.

The idea with which every ship is built, equipped, and organized is that it shall be "self-supporting." So far as the material is concerned, they are practically so in installations, equipments, and organizations.

But the best material in the world is useless unless there is a skilled and trained personnel to handle it and to take proper care of it. The commissioned and en-

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listed personnel of the Navy are responsible for the condition of the ships. The training division of the Bureau of Navigation in Washington is especially entrusted with the proper training and instruction of this personnel, to the end that the ships may be properly taken care of.

A CLASS IN A TYPICAL NAVAL SCHOOL

Six per cent of the personnel of a modern naval vessel must be trained electricians

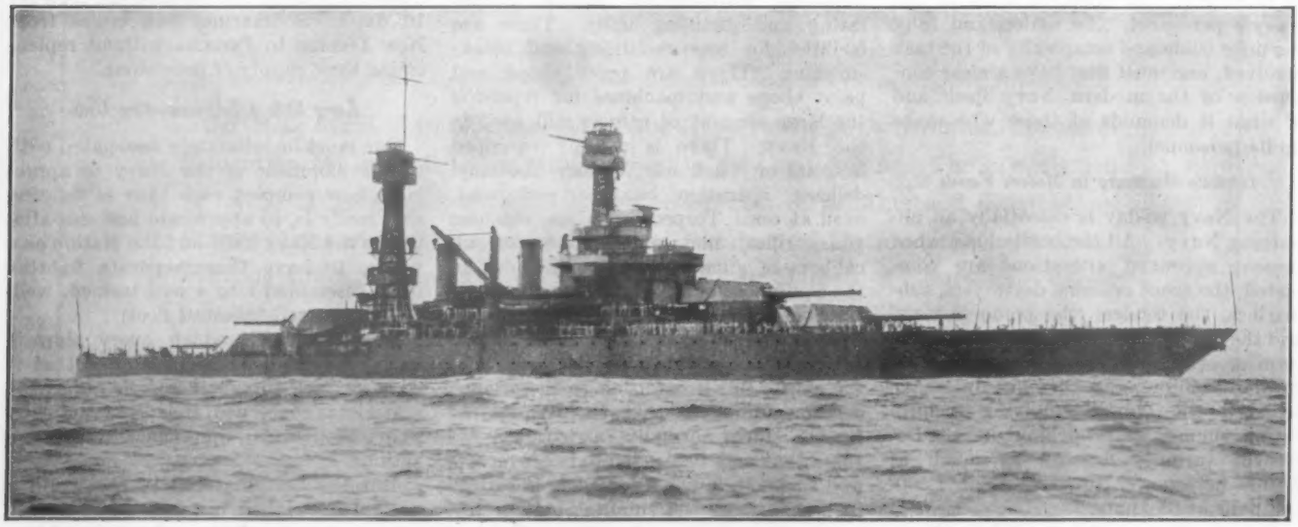
One has only to be told that there are 137 different ratings among the enlisted men of the Navy to realize the enormous task this training division has before it. Each rating is a distinct class representing different kinds and degrees of training. Each man in any particular rating must be an expert in the work which his rate requires him to perform.

Unless the handling of stores is properly supervised, unless the food is well cooked, the bread well baked, unless the boilers are kept clean, tight, and efficient, unless the auxiliaries and main engines are always ready for their maximum speed at their lowest economy, unless the guns are properly trained, elevated, and loaded, and their fire accurately directed, the ship is unreliable, unfit for service, and useless for the important work it has to perform.

While the various naval installations are standardized to a large degree, no man can be considered as thoroughly qualified in his rating who knows only the equipment of his own ship. All men must be able to perform the duties required by their ratings on any type of naval vessel. In addition, they must have a thorough knowledge of naval customs and procedure. Whether a man is a machinist or a quatermaster, a radioman or boatswain mate, he must know his job thoroughly and must be so thoroughly indoctrinated in naval customs that he is equal to any emergency. The valuable equipment on every ship is entrusted to the care of the officers and men on board. The Navy can not afford to have this material carelessly handled. The personnel in charge must be experts. The safety of the ship in cruising, its preparedness for the great emergency in war time, and its value as a fighting unit in the whole naval organization depends upon the degree of perfection reached in the training of commissioned and enlisted personnel.

One can hardly think of any of the technical trades and professions in civil life which is not required and used in the Navy. But the Navy at sea can not draw upon these mechanical and professional experts of civil life to do its work. The Navy must train its own experts, and the training must be continuous. There is not that permanency of personnel in the Navy which makes so much for efficiency in shore plants. Through expiration of enlistments, death, inaptitude, and physical disabilities the Navy loses 24 per cent of its personnel yearly. These are replaced by men who in most respects must be considered as untrained. These men must be assimilated into the organization and trained and instructed in the work they must perform.

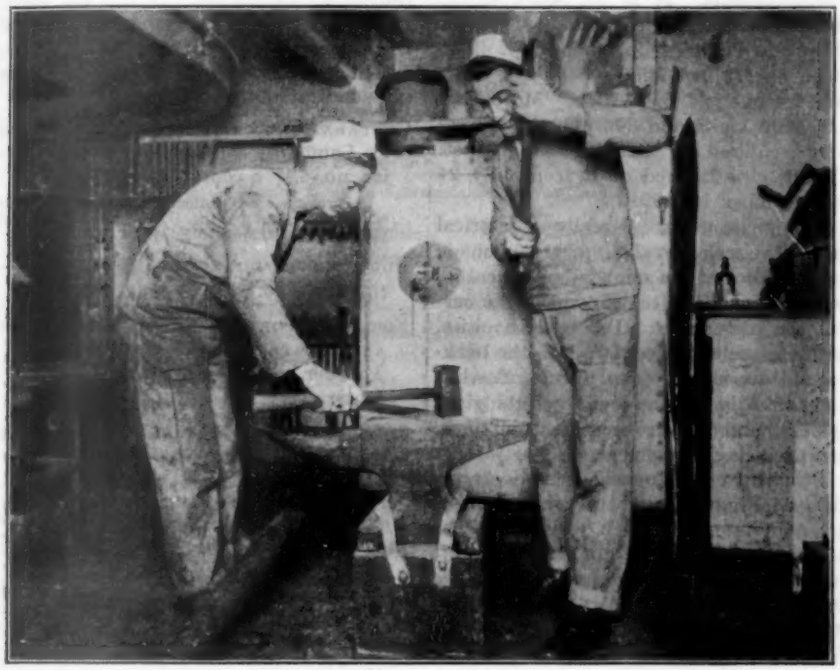
It can be safely said that no institution or organization in the world is called upon to do such intensive and varied training as the American Navy, and it is also



U. S. S. "WEST VIRGINIA"

Her complement of 1,200 includes men trained in nearly every trade of civil life. Nearly all of them received their training after entering the Navy

true that no trade school or training institution is in a position to offer its men under instruction such complete equipment and facilities. The 25,000 men recruited annually come from all the States



Students of the Naval Blacksmiths' School at Hampton Roads, Va.

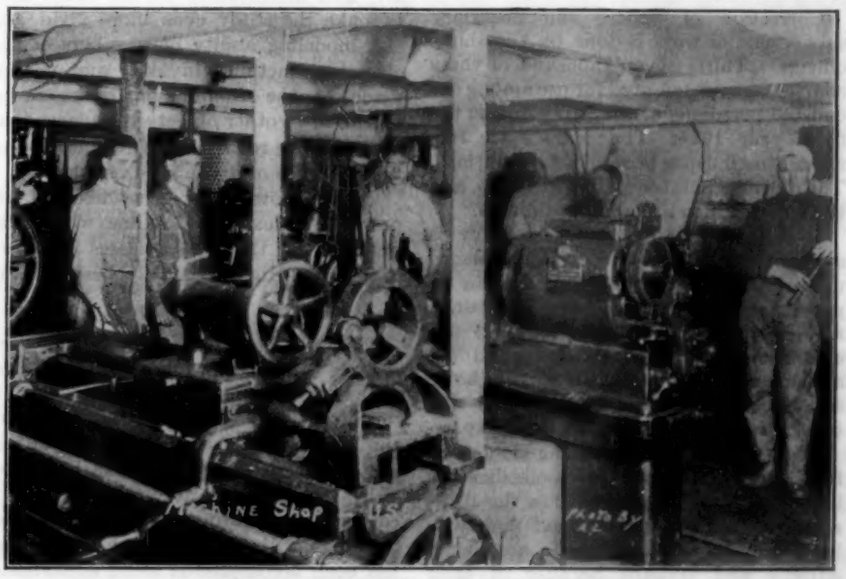
in the Union and from all walks of life. Some are students, some farmers, some laborers, and some, a very small percentage, have no trade in civil life. These are the men who later become the Navy's expert coppersmiths, blacksmiths, boilermakers, machinists, yeomen, painters, carpenters, plumbers, storekeepers, electricians, radiomen, cooks, bakers, musicians, hospital corpsmen, and experts in many other technical trades.

It is true, and naturally so, that not every one of these 25,000 recruits reaches one of the enumerated ratings. But even if he is only a seaman or a fireman, he is a trained man for a particular job. He may be a gun pointer, a gun sight setter, a member of a gun's or turret's crew; he may simply watch the boiler burn the oil pumped to it as an oil-burning fireman. But, whatever his rating, he is an individual in a well-trained, well-organized fighting unit, and as such, he must reach the highest degree of proficiency possible, if that unit is to operate at its maximum effectiveness.

Considering the modern dreadnaught *West Virginia*, with an allowed complement of about 1,200 men, approximately 58 per cent of them are organized into deck divisions, which include men trained as quartermasters, signalmen, torpedo men, gunners' mates, boatswains' mates, and turret captains. This percentage includes the trained seamen who make up the guns' crews. Another 20 per cent of the ship's complement is organized into the engineer and repair forces and includes boilermakers, molders, coppersmiths, water tenders, machinists, blacksmiths, and firemen. Radiomen, electricians, painters, shipfitters, carpenters, and other ship artificers comprise an additional 10 per cent of the complement. Cooks, bakers, and men of the messman rating make up 5 per cent of the crew. Yeomen (the clerical force), storekeepers, musicians, hospital-corpsmen comprise fully 7 per cent of the crew. On a ship like the *West Virginia*, 6 per cent of the entire ship complement is made up of men qualified as electricians, and probably another 3 per cent of the crew from among the seamen guns' crews are working with them to learn this trade. There are actually 96 different ratings aboard this particular ship.

How does the Navy get its skilled experts? It makes them. At sea and ashore the Navy is keeping its personnel under continuous instruction. It is possible to do this by reason of the fact that the Navy uses its own trained personnel as instructors. The commissioned officers who are given four years of intensive training and education at the Naval Academy and the chief petty officers who have become experts in their particular ratings during their 16 or 20 years of service are especially fitted to do this type of instruction.

At all training stations and at certain other places, such as the naval torpedo station at Newport, R. I., the naval radio laboratory at Washington, the Sperry Gyro Compass Works at Brooklyn, N. Y., the Naval Gun Factory in the Washington Navy Yard, the Navy maintains men under special trade instruction. At present there is an average of 2,000 men under such instruction in the 26 trade schools now in active operation. Two hundred and sixty petty officers with special qualifications are detailed as instructors. The courses vary in length from 4 to 38 weeks. As soon as one class finishes its course of instruction, another follows. Men are selected for these various classes of trade instruction from the particularly apt and desirable recruits who have previously been given a special aptitude and educational test and from the men of the fleet who are recommended for this instruction by their commanding officers as being particularly desirable men for a particular trade. The Navy receives annually an average



MACHINE SHOP ON THE U. S. S. "PENNSYLVANIA"

Nearly all the men were trained in the service

of 4,000 trained men from these trade schools. Upon completion of a course the graduate goes to sea and performs the work for which he has been specially trained.

But these trade schools ashore can not take care of the demand for trained men at sea. The graduates from the trade schools must have their instruction continued at sea to make them better qualified in their ratings and to prepare them for advancement, so that, in addition to these 26 trade schools ashore, every ship in the Navy maintains trade schools for instructing men it needs in special trades. The courses for these schools are furnished by the training division of the Bureau of Navigation. Seventy-four different courses of instruction grouped under the following general headings are furnished by that division for use of enlisted men: Seamanship, communications, engineering, deck artificers, special branches, and general academic subjects. These courses with the textbooks are available for all enlisted men ashore and afloat and are furnished free to them. Courses are of three kinds: (1) "Rating courses," that is a course of instruction containing the specific information a man must know before he is considered to be qualified for advancement in his particular rating, as, for example, a man advancing from radioman third class to radioman second class; (2) "general technical courses to increase naval skill," as, for example, a course of instruction in detail on a particular naval installation, such as a distilling plant or Curtis turbines; (3) "academic courses to further the general education of the individual," as, for example, arithmetic, chemistry, English, United States history, Spanish.

Instruction by Ship's Officers

Correction of papers and necessary supervision of work is done by the ship's officers. Thirty-seven thousand of these courses were distributed for use among the enlisted personnel of the Navy during the fiscal year 1924. The courses are furnished to all types of ships on all stations. The officers are interested instructors, and the enlisted men are ardent students.

It is in this way that the Navy is attempting to meet the demands placed upon it by the constant turnover in its personnel. The replacement of trained men who go out into civil life at the expiration of their enlistments and the advancement of others who remain in the service requires that this training and instruction be carried on continuously.

That the system of training is successful is evidenced by the increased efficiency in gunnery and engineering in the fleets and by the fact that trained men who leave the Navy for civil life are better citizens and artisans because of their training in the Navy.

Crippled Czech Girls Weave Pictorial Carpet

A remarkable pictorial carpet has just been completed in Prague, the capital of Czechoslovakia. It is the work of 10 girls from the Jedlicka Institution for Crippled Children in that city. The carpet is 472 feet long by 314 feet wide, and the pile is 1 inch thick. More than 5,000,000 knots and 300 pounds of wool were required in weaving the carpet. The 10 girls labored on it from July 24 to December 16, 1924.

This piece of work is really a historical map of Czechoslovakia, and was made on the order of the ministry of education at a cost of $17,221. Woven in the carpet are pictures of 40 Bohemian cities, with Prague in the center. On the background are shown trees, shrubs, flowers, and animals of the country, its river system, and Czech vocational pictures, arranged in geographical order.

Schools from many places made excursions to Prague to see this great work of art and industry, which will be sent as an educational exhibit to Paris before it is finally placed in the great hall of the Prague tower Hradcany, now the residence of the president of the republic.—*Emanuel V. Lippert, Comenius Institute, Prague.*

Developing Historical Background for Latin Study

The study of ancient languages, especially Latin, is preceded in many schools by a study of the historical background. This preliminary preparation may take the form of readings in history, some acquaintance with the religion, literature, art, and architecture of the time; and, to make the study even more vivid, the clay-modeling ability of members of the class is sometimes invoked and models made of the Roman senate room or forum, or of other objects and places that give a living reality to the acquisition of the language of a vanished people.

"Latin notes" for December, 1924, presents an excellent outline which was prepared for the use of classes in Cicero in the East High School, Rochester, N. Y

Parent-teacher associations have been organized in Delaware during the past year in 327 out of the 388 school districts in the State. With the cooperation of the Delaware school auxiliary association, each of these associations has been provided with a definite program for the conduct of meetings, and a pamphlet illustrating the program, showing what has been accomplished along educational lines in Delaware and other States.

Bureau of Education's Latest Publications

The following publications have been issued recently by the United States Bureau of Education. Orders for them should be sent to the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., accompanied by the price indicated.

COOPERATION IN ADULT EDUCATION. Ellen C. Lombard. (Home education circular, no. 6.) 5 cents.

Report of second National conference on home education, called by the U. S. Commissioner of Education, at Minneapolis, May 7, 1924.

EDUCATIONAL DIRECTORY, 1925. (Bulletin, 1925, no. 1.) 25 cents.

FISCAL SUPPORT OF STATE UNIVERSITIES AND STATE COLLEGES. Clarence H. Thurber. (Bulletin, 1924, no. 28.) 20 cents.

IMPROVEMENT IN TEACHING READING IN RURAL SCHOOLS. Maud C. Newbury. (Rural school leaflet, no. 35.) 5 cents.

LEGISLATION ON THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL. Paul W. Terry and William J. Marquis. (Bulletin, 1924, no. 29.) 10 cents.

Contains: 1. Legislation on the high school.—2. Analysis of junior-high-school legislation.—3. The organization of junior high schools in States having no legislation relating explicitly thereto.—4. Reports of State departments of education concerning additional junior-high-school legislation.—5. The problem of legislative stimulation of the junior high school.

A MANUAL OF EDUCATIONAL LEGISLATION FOR THE GUIDANCE OF COMMITTEES ON EDUCATION IN THE STATE LEGISLATURES. (Bulletin, 1924, no. 36.) 10 cents.

Contents: I. Purpose and scope.—II. General analysis of school organization and administration.—III. School costs and school support.—IV. School attendance and compulsory attendance laws.—V. Physical education.—VI. School grounds and buildings.—VII. The teaching staff.—VIII. Certification of teachers.—IX. School textbooks.

RECOGNITION OF HEALTH AS AN OBJECTIVE. Report of a conference at Boston, October, 1923. Harriet Wedgwood. (School health studies, no. 7.) 5 cents.

Contains: 1. Physical education and school health, by John Sundwall.—2. Certain adolescents in industry, by Hugh G. Rowell.

SAMPLES OF TEACHER SELF-RATING CARDS. Comp. by Bertha Y. Hebb. (City school leaflet, no. 18, February, 1925.) 5 cents.

A STUDY OF 260 SCHOOL CONSOLIDATIONS. J. F. Abel. (Bulletin, 1924, no. 32.) 10 cents.

Contents: Introduction.—Ch. I. The typical school consolidation, comparative standards, and variations from the type.—Ch. II. Transportation of pupils, equipment for special courses, community activities.—Statistical tables.

WHAT EVERY TEACHER SHOULD KNOW ABOUT THE PHYSICAL CONDITION OF HER PUPILS. James F. Rogers. (Health education no. 18.) 5 cents.

Offers suggestions for the teacher in order that she may do effective work in estimating the physical condition and capacity of her pupils.

Problems of New Zealand Offer Lessons for America

Junior High Schools in High Favor. Fierce Opposition to Consolidation of Small Schools Giving Way Before Plain Benefits. Correspondence Courses for "Back-Block" Children. Teachers Appointed, Transferred, and Promoted by Dominion Authorities. Must Serve Two Years Before Transfer

By MARK COHEN •

Member House of Representatives of New Zealand

JUNIOR high schools and the consolidation of primary schools are two matters that are very dear to the heart of the present minister of education. The first of the junior high schools was established at Kowhai, a suburb of Auckland, where it has been in operation for a little more than two years, and the minister feels warranted in expressing its success in these terms: "From every quarter enthusiastic indorsements of the new system have been expressed. The parents of the children concerned are enthusiastic in their praise, and would view with positive dismay any suggestion to revert to the older system. Scholars, teachers, inspectors, and other officers of the department, as well as visiting educationists, have expressed warm appreciation of the results under the new arrangement of curriculum." A second school is to be established at Whangerei, in the far north of Auckland, and a third has been inaugurated in connection with the Waitaki Boys' High School, which is one of the most efficient secondary establishments in the Dominion.

Four Distinct Types Required

The need of four types of junior high schools has developed:

(1) The junior high school at Kowhai is a separate institution under its own principal, and it contains about 900 pupils, meeting the needs of three adjacent schools. In the four largest cities several junior high schools of this type would need to be established. It would not be desirable to attach a junior high-school course to existing secondary or technical schools in those cities.

(2) In towns of from 5,000 to about 15,000 inhabitants the junior high school must necessarily be attached to existing secondary schools, for it would not be possible to maintain separate junior and senior high schools with adequate staffs owing to the small numbers of pupils.

(3) Arrangements are well in hand for the establishment of junior high schools in small towns in which there are mixed secondary schools. Thus, not only will the pupils of the junior high school be benefited, but the high school, or technical high school, as the case may be, will be made more efficient right up to the sixth-form stage.

(4) It is hoped to establish junior high schools in districts where at present there are district high schools with one or two teachers and a small number of scholars. In such cases the junior high school course will be attached to existing primary schools and attended by pupils from neighboring schools. This plan would strengthen a number of secondary departments of district high schools where at present the number of pupils and teachers is too small for effective staffing and organization.

As opportunity and the circumstances of finance make it possible these four types of junior high-school courses will be developed in all parts of New Zealand, the minister states, so that the time will come when throughout the Dominion the primary school course will branch off into the junior secondary school course at about the present fourth standard and when the pupils are about 12 years of age.

Of recent years considerable attention has been paid to the desirability of consolidating our small country schools in charge of one teacher, of which there are admittedly far too many. The need for giving a better education to the children of the "back-block" settler has been universally acknowledged, but the lion in the path has been the fierce determination of the aforesaid pioneer settler not to part with the advantages to his own bairns which the one-teacher school is supposed to give.

Successful Result of Consolidation is Anticipated

By persistent propaganda the superiority of the consolidated school, with its full teaching equipment, has been made manifest; and at last the department of education feels itself justified in initiating a plan for the consolidation of such schools. Such a school has been started at Otorohanga (Auckland), to which is attached a secondary department, and the pupils are conveyed to it by motor bus from their homes. "Everything points to a successful result," says the minister, "and it seems certain that before long the department will be pressed in all directions to convey children to the more fully equipped centrally situated school."

Such another school will be opened early this year in the Taranaki education district, and a similar movement has been started in various parts of the South Island. "Thus," remarks the minister, "instead of the previous objections and opposition, the department is beginning to find that the people themselves are now convinced of the benefits of the policy, and are urging its adoption."

Correspondence Instruction for Isolated Children

By way of giving the children of the "back-block" settler better educational opportunities the department has inaugurated correspondence classes for their special benefit, and the experiment has proved a decided success. Established in 1922, these classes have become very popular, and the number of pupils is increasing very rapidly. With a few exceptions—certainly less than 2 per cent of the whole—the children now taught through correspondence are those who could not attend an ungraded school, even of three to eight pupils under an uncertificated, untrained teacher.

These correspondence classes are conducted by six certificated teachers attached to the head office in the capital; and they send out a weekly or quarterly quota of work through the medium of the post office, with instructions for the guidance of the parents or those who may assist the children in their tasks. It is now reported that "the progress made by the children of these correspondence classes during the past two years has been remarkable. The children take the keenest interest in their work, and it is not too much to say that this venture * * * deals effectively with a difficulty of the greatest national importance."

At last there is a movement toward the reduction of the size of classes in the primary schools. It is more than 17 years since the writer of these notes, then a member of the education board of Otago, along with the then inspector general of schools (the late Mr. George Hogben), attended a Pan-British education congress that met in London, and we, on behalf of New Zealand, gave our whole-hearted support to a proposal to limit the size of classes in the common schools of the British Empire to a maximum of 46 pupils.

Little Reduction in Size of Classes

So far as this writer's knowledge goes, the only place within the British Empire that acted on that resolution was South Africa, which reduced its classes to 36. Be that as it may, however, the fact remains that New Zealand has done practically nothing in the interval; indeed, in some education districts the evil has been magnified rather than decreased.

The time was when half the staff of our large city schools consisted mainly of pupil teachers, each of whom had on

the average the oversight of about 40 pupils. I have in my mind's eye several classes in large city schools that contained 120 pupils, in charge of an assistant and three pupil teachers. Of late years the proportion of pupil teachers has been sensibly reduced and assistants have superseded them. But the training colleges in the four centers have not succeeded in turning out a sufficiency of qualified teachers to meet the demand for assistants, and in consequence the unwieldy classes are still the order of the day—more's the pity of it. Now we are told officially that there are more than 1,200 trainees in the colleges, and the scandal (for such it is) of overcrowded classes will soon be at end. Last year (1923–24) approval was given by the minister to the appointment of about 200 additional assistants to replace pupil teachers, and we are promised that there shall be a subdivision of the large classes.

Teachers are Graded Uniformly

The Dominion scheme of grading and appointment of primary-school teachers has been subjected to a further test of a practical character. The seven inspectors exchanged districts for a period of three months, during which they made a strict investigation respecting the uniformity or otherwise of the standard of grading of our primary school teachers. This work was thoroughly done, and at its conclusion the inspectors assembled in Wellington and reported unanimously that they found the standard to be uniform on the whole, affording a complete vindication of the system of grading of salaries.

The appointment of teachers based on efficiency has met with the almost universal indorsement of teachers. The objection appears to be confined to school committees, who resent the withdrawal of their right to be "consulted" when appointments are made. But the Minister is warranted in asserting as the outcome of his own practical experience as a committeeman and as chairman of an education board that it ought to be recognized that if there is to be a Dominion system of appointment and promotion of teachers on merit alone and without any barriers of district or locality there must be a Dominion system of grading.

Two Years' Service Before Changing Places

In this relation Parliament at its late session made an important alteration in the education law that gave umbrage to a section of the teaching profession, but gave profound satisfaction to all engaged in the administration of our primary-school system. Before the Dominion scheme of grading was promulgated the various education boards (Otago leading, Auckland following that lead, and the others falling into line) provided their own schemes of grading positions and fixing salaries. Then no teacher could move into a fresh position till after two years' service in his original position. Under pressure from the New Zealand Education Institute, the official teachers' organization, the department reduced that period to one year.

The working of this regulation disorganized the school staffs by reason of the frequency of changes of teachers and greatly prejudiced the progress of bright pupils, especially those who were competing for scholarships, and there arose from education boards, school committees, and others interested a universal demand that the old two years' rule should be reverted to. The two branches of the legislature were divided on this issue, and several conferences were held before an agreement was reached. In the end common sense prevailed, and the two years' rule was restored. And since the act was passed it has come to the knowledge of the Minister that a similar evil has crept into the secondary schools, wherefore remedial legislation will be proposed this year.

Entire Dominion Open for Transfer

Another outcome of the dissatisfaction caused by the frequency of the changes in school staffing was the revision of the scale as far as positions and salaries of assistants were concerned. Instead of seven salary grades there are only three now, and salaries have been raised by £25 per annum. The Minister's latest report calls attention to the fact that "for the first time the whole of New Zealand was thrown open for the promotion of teachers on their merits; consequently many teachers who under the more parochial system that had largely existed previously were unable to secure promotion outside of their own district, are now able to do so. After this first general transfer it is fairly clear that the number of changes will be smaller, and the reduction of salary grades to three will further lead to a greater stability of staffs."

The total cost of education in New Zealand has risen to £3,350,000, compared with £3,268,000 the previous year, with £1,500,000 before the great war. Per contra, the attendance at the primary schools has risen from 158,134 in 1914 to 214,778 last year; the secondary schools had a roll number of 11,620 against 6,056; the technical schools 5,054 against 1,839; and the university colleges 4,202 against 2,257. Thus the aggregate roll attendance was increased by 40 per cent, while the figures for the post-primary grades showed an increase of more than 100 per cent. Of course, the factors that account for this largely increased cost are only too apparent—increase in population and greatly enhanced cost of living. The total cost of education per head of population was £2 10s. 5d. in 1923–24.

All private primary schools are now subject to Government inspection, and their standard-6 pupils are examined for proficiency and leaving certificates, just the same as the pupils in State schools. The number of children attending these schools last year was 26,010. Of those in standard 6, 71.5 per cent gained proficiency certificates and 13.1 per cent gained competency certificates.

House Allowances for Head Teachers

The primary State schools employ 5,656 teachers, of whom 1,865 are males and 3,791 females. The head teachers are 881 and 146, respectively; the assistants 529 and 2,669, respectively. The salary bill totals £1,588,582, all but £162,030 being divided among the adult teachers. Head teachers are paid from £180 to £520; assistants from £100 to £430. In addition from £20 to £60 is paid according to the individual's position on the graded list, and married assistants at an additional £40 a year. Head teachers, when not provided with a glebe or free house, receive a house allowance ranging from £30 to £60 a year. Like the rest of the civil service, when the roar of retrenchment went through the land in 1921–22 salaries were reduced by £15 to £20, but this is being gradually restored.

For the first time the Terman group test of mental ability was applied to all first-year pupils in the post-primary schools. The number tested was 8,657, and we are told that "on the whole the results correlated to a remarkable degree with the more elaborate entrance examinations."

The technical high schools were attended by 5,054 pupils, an increase of 852 over the previous year. The other technical colleges held 18,117 pupils, compared with 16,664 in 1922–23. Of the 18,000 odd, 9,653 gained admission through the "free-place" system. Grave complaint is made that the pupils do not stay longer than one year, and the Minister expresses his belief that the evil "will probably persist as long as employment is open to children under 16 years of age." Here, again, pointed reference is made to the increasing tendency of our adolescents to go in for the learned and genteel professions. The slogan of "back to the land" has no attraction for them.

Many Chinese schools have failed to open this year and others have been greatly hampered in their work by the disturbances in the country and lack of funds. The educational department of Peking University, however, has continued its work, with an attendance of 600 students, and steady progress has been made on the new buildings and teachers' residences under construction.

Relation of College Curricula to Educational and Vocational Guidance

About One-Third of Each College Class Victims of Educational Administration. Recent Experimental and Statistical Studies. Is Success in College Prophetic of Success in Professional School? Use of Intelligence Tests for Admission to College. Individuals Must be Studied, as Well as Taught. Determination of College Entrance Should Begin in First High-School Years

By BEN D. WOOD
Assistant Professor of Educational Research, Columbia University

THE CONTINUING high percentage of failures, semifailures, withdrawals for unknown causes, and transfers from one course of study to another in our colleges and professional schools, with all the waste of educational effort and sacrifice of human energy and happiness that these things imply, is a constant reminder to both teacher and administrator of the inescapable demands of vocational and professional guidance. It is a goad which forces us to the disheartening admission that in our zeal for teaching and educating we have failed to meet our first obligation to the beneficiaries of our educational efforts. This first duty of the educator is not to teach but to learn—to learn what the student can learn, to discover what he should try to learn and how he may be most efficaciously helped to learn. That we have no exact information even as to the number of failures that our colleges turn out annually is a fact which might be interpreted by an unsympathetic critic as indicating that our excusable failure has thus far very probably been accompanied by inexcusable neglect.

Reflex Influence of Failure

It is estimated that about 35 per cent of those annually admitted to college fail to achieve the goal for which they entered college. If this estimate is only approximately correct, it means that about a third of each college class is the victim of educational administration. When we consider the reflex influence which this predestined third has on the other two-thirds in dragging standards of scholarship downward, in diverting a disproportionately large fraction of the teaching energy of the institutions from fertile soil to barren, but not otherwise irreclaimable, land, and the general lowering of the morale of the whole college community, the crucial character of the need for an immediate and comprehensive attack on the guidance problem is clear.

Delivered before the Association of American Colleges, Chicago, January 9, 1925.

The question which has been assigned to me for discussion this morning is "What can the college curriculum do for educational and professional guidance?" My answer is that we do not know, but that there is sufficient promise in the guidance potentialities of the curriculum to make it worth serious study. A number of experimental and statistical studies have been made during the past 15 years, of which one of the most important is that reported by President Lowell of Harvard, in the 1911 volume of The Educational Review. President Lowell studied the records of about 2,000 graduates of the Harvard Law and Medical Schools who had previously been graduated from Harvard College. He divided these students into four groups, (1) those who had majored in literature and languages, (2) those who had majored in history and political science, (3) those who had majored in natural sciences, and (4) those who had majored in philosophy and mathematics.

Too Much Stress on Subject Matter

With respect to law graduates, there was not a sufficiently large number of cases in the last two groups to make the results worthy of confidence. His study, therefore, narrows down to a comparison between the professional school achievement of those who had majored in literature and languages and those who had majored in history and political science. His findings were briefly that these various groups of students did equally well in professional school, and his final conclusion was that "in the administration of our colleges, and, indeed, in all our general education, as distinguished from direct vocational or professional training, we have laid too much stress on the subject, too little on the excellence of the work and on the rank attained."

This conclusion seems to me to be unwarrantably pessimistic with regard to the guidance potentialities of the curriculum for reasons which will be stated in a moment. In order to check up on the findings of President Lowell, the research staff in Dean Hawkes's office made a study of 300 graduates of the Columbia Law School who had previously been graduated from Columbia College. These students were divided into groups just as in President Lowell's study. We found that all four groups achieved exactly the same average grade, B−, in both law school and college. Again it is to be noted that there were only two students each in the natural science and philosophy and mathematics groups. Apparently these findings indicate that there is no relation between collegiate subject matter and professional school which may afford a basis for professional guidance. However, in reality, they mean very little, if anything. In the first place both studies are based upon more or less arbitrary groups of courses. They do not deal with specific subject matters. Indeed, the groups of students compared are such as would constitute approximately random samplings of students, and the findings are not far from what we should expect from pure chance selections. But the major weakness of both studies is due to the character of the educational measurements used.

Conclusions of Low Reliability

Every study that has been made of college and professional school grades has invariably indicated that they are extremely subjective in all respects, of unknown significance, of unpredictable variations in standards, and of very low reliability. These vitiating features of the original data are greatly magnified by the mixing of records and standards derived throughout a period of 20 years. These are in brief the reasons why I do not believe that President Lowell's study offers any real evidence against the value of the college curriculum as an instrument of vocational guidance. It should be said, of course, that President Lowell's study was considerably colored by the then much-mooted question of the transfer

of training and that his study was dominated by the concept of college subject matters as preparation for higher studies. The modern attitude toward college courses considers them not as preparatory disciplines but, in so far as guidance is concerned, as a means for displaying particular abilities and effective interests, and it is from this viewpoint that there has been a great revival of interest in the last few years in the college curriculum.

Correlation of Success Lowest in French

What we need to know is not so much the comparative achievement in professional schools of students who happen under the present arrangements to choose particular groups of courses, but rather the relationships which obtain between success or failure in specific collegiate subjects and success or failure in particular professions, and in particular branches of such professions. It was with this question in mind that in this investigation we studied the relation between success in Columbia Law School and success in various courses and groups of courses in Columbia College. None of the obtained correlations are very high but they range in magnitude from 0.18 to 0.56, thus indicating within the limits of reliability of such a small-scaled study as this that there really may be significant differences between various collegiate subject matters with respect to professional guidance potentialities. Taking these correlations in order of magnitude, we begin with French at the bottom of the list and finally reach the total average college grade at the top, with history and political science a close second.

	r	*n*
French	0.18	50
Economics	.28	69
Philosophy	.32	72
History	.36	74
Mathematics	.40	56
English	.42	60
Majors in literature and language group	.34	221
Majors in history and political science group	.54	88
Average grade of all history and political science students (not majors only)	.55	211
Total average college grade	.56	300

Thus it appears that status in the history and political science group is almost as good a prediction of later success in law school as the average of all the college grades together, whereas the status of students in French has very nearly a pure chance relationship to later success in law school. The inference is clear that in professional guidance we must not only emphasize general excellence, but also take account of the subject matter in which achievement is excellent.

These figures are in themselves not important. I cite them merely as one small bit of evidence which indicates and justifies a widespread revival of interest in the specific achievement of students for vocational guidance. Since the Great War we have had a great efflorescence of research, with intelligence tests and special-aptitude tests of all sorts. In spite of the large measure of success which our experiments with such tests have enjoyed, there is, in my humble opinion, a definite turning to the subject matters of the curriculum for vocational guidance data. It is to be noticed that this new tendency is not a break from the testing technique; it is, on the contrary, a natural and logical development of the testing technique.

Intelligence Tests Satisfactory in Columbia

In Columbia College, for example, the intelligence tests have been used continuously since 1919. The Thorndike test of intelligence for high-school graduates has been found to be the best single criterion for admission to college that we have used in Columbia College. Similarly, the Thorndike special intelligence test, used in the Columbia Law School, predicts success in law school better than the average college grade does. These intelligence tests predict success during the first two college years approximately as accurately as the first year in college predicts success in the second year—that is, 0.67 as compared with 0.70. It is clear from these figures that the admission criteria can not be very much improved until the measures of success in college are more accurate and significant. The logical next step, therefore, would be to study methods for measuring higher educational achievement, and such studies have been going on in the office of the dean of Columbia College for more than three years past. The new type tests are now a regular part of the examination machinery in more than a dozen departments of Columbia College and in several of the professional schools of Columbia University. In these departments reliability of the college grades has been raised from an average of about 0.60 to an average of about 0.85.

A study of the relationships between achievement in specific college courses and achievement in the specific professional courses, based upon these more reliable grades, might result in such high correlations as to give us decisive bases for educational and professional advice—particularly if used in combination with all other types of available information. Something of this sort is indicated by the history of the placement tests which have been used in Columbia College experimentally for two years.

The revival of interest in the achievement of students in particular subject matters is merely one manifestation of the desire of educational administrators to get as complete a picture of the individual student as possible. There was a time when at least mild hopes were entertained that some test or tests might turn out to be panaceas to cure all the misfits and maladjustments in the whole educational ladder. This hope, if it ever existed, has given way to the sober realization that in so complex a problem, into which so many currents and cross currents of personality and interest and social and economic opportunity enter, there can be no panacea, and that the best we can do is to increase and make more exact and more conveniently available information about the individual students that we are concerned with.

Little Use Made of Students' Records

In this connection it has recently been widely noticed that very little use is made, and that very little use can be made under the present system, of the previous school records that students present. The chaotic character of these records, dependent as they are upon local standards and local curricula, called into being such examining agencies as the college entrance examination board, the Middle States board, etc. We still hear invidious comparisons made between the prophetic powers of high-school records and of college entrance examinations. In general the faith of colleges seems to favor the college entrance examinations more than the secondary-school records. In the great cosmopolitan colleges which draw their students from all parts of the country

EDUCATION is, in truth, the first concern of society, and it ought to have the energies of society's best minds. The Athenians, who had glimpses of whatever was most glorious, did in this matter leave mankind a great example. Teaching was the honorable occupation of their greatest men. The brightest minds of Athenian philosophy were the instructors of Athenian youth; so keenly was the truth felt that the mature intelligence and moral power acquired in the struggles of a distinguished life could perform no higher function than that of rearing up the same precious fruits in the rising minds of the community.—*John Lalor.*

the college entrance examinations do predict college sucess better than the average high-school grades. But wherever a large number of students goes from one first-class high school to one college, the high-school record has been found to be a very much better prediction of college success than the college entrance examinations. This would seem to indicate that while our lack of faith in high-school records is justified, our lack of faith in the value of the high-school experience is not justified. More positively it indicates that if we had more accurate and more complete records of the high-school experience, college entrance examinations might not be necessary. Our recent experience with new methods for the measurement of specific achievement is sufficient to convince us that it is now possible to secure objective, reliable, significant, and comparable measures of specific achievement throughout the whole educational ladder, and it is only natural that there should be a strong demand for the realization of these much-hoped for possibilities.

Knowledge of Individuals Essential

In my opinion our teaching would be several times as efficient as it is now if a fourth of the present teaching energy could be diverted from teaching individuals to learning individuals and to making the results of such learning available in understandable terms at the right time and place.

Recognizing the fundamental prerequisite for vocational guidance to be accurate measures of all educational products, since the knowable value of all prognostic devices ultimately depends upon their correlations with school products, we are setting the whole energy of the research bureau in Columbia College under the leadership of Dean Hawkes, to the task of developing means for the measurement of achievement in colleges and professional school courses which may give us reliable and comparable data. In the last analysis the quality of our guidance depends upon the character and completeness of the data which are available on each individual student.

It may be of value to attempt a specific and detailed answer to the question "Why is our college guidance so ineffective, and what is the remedy?" The first part is easier to answer than the second, but the answer to the second depends on the answer to the first.

Information Obtained Too Late for Use

1. Our guidance is bad, in the first place, because the information that we do have comes to us too late. I have heard college deans say that very often they knew enough about a particular student in his senior year to advise the student wisely about his college education. Even if this information were available at the beginning of the Freshman year, it would in many cases be too late to help matters very much, because by that time the student's habits are fairly well set. Even Phi Beta Kappa material may be degenerated into college failures, partial or complete, by misplacement throughout the grammar and high school years.

2. The information is never complete. Not only are the important factors of habits, character, and attitudes left to the oblivion of the opinion of comparative strangers, but many of the significant and extracurricular experiences of the student are generally omitted from the records.

Inaccuracy a Crying Fault

3. It is very often inaccurate. For those who have read the scientific literature of the past decade on school examinations this assertion needs no comment.

4. It is rarely, if ever, stated in comparable units for any large body of students such as the average American college has to deal with.

5. In addition to these weaknesses, it is rarely possible to guess successfully the meaning of many of the grades on the record card of a given student. A grade in a given course may really mean almost anything from actual achievement in that subject matter to the private personal opinion of the teacher about the student.

6. The information about students, such as it is, is frequently scattered and not available at the time and place where it could be used. I estimate that less than 1 per cent of the significant information which high school teachers learn about students reaches the college at the right time and in understandable units. There is neither a common language between lower and higher education, nor an adequate liasion system.

Only an Instantaneous Picture Available

7. At their best, the records which we get give only an instantaneous picture of the individual; that is, his reaction to certain examinations taken at the end of his high-school course. They give us no reliable intimations of how the capacity for making such a reaction developed, nor how representative of the student that reaction is.

8. The records consist too much of opinions and general feelings of teachers about students, and too little of actual facts about those students especially in regard to personality and character qualities and effective interests.

9. Finally, even the very best prognostic tests given at college entrance time are very unreliable, because of the advanced age and variations in the age of students entering college. Other things being equal, the testing of students becomes more difficult as we go up the chronological age scale. The personality of the student becomes much more complex, and his capacities become hedged about with a multiplicity of habits and interests, all of which have to be penetrated by tests given in the college years. We should, of course, give tests during the college years, but my point is that these tests would be much more illuminating if they were preceded by many other tests given during the grammar and high-school years.

These loopholes in our present system of guidance define the first remedial steps. We must have closer cooperation between the colleges and the lower schools. The collegiate personnel problem is only an indivisible part or aspect of the whole educational personnel problem, and it can not be hopefully attacked other than as a continuous part. The center of gravity of the educational personnel problem is in the junior high school, and I feel that the major part of the collegiate personnel problem can be solved economically only during the high-school years.

Cumulative Records of Achievement Required

The lower schools should make reliable and comparable measurements of the abilities of their students available to the colleges. We should demand cumulative records of achievement based on objective and reliable measures of known significance. A fair number of secondary schools are already in a position to give us cumulative records of such objective measures, but no channels of communication exist whereby the colleges might get them at the right time in usable form. In some cases our colleges have not provided administrative facilities for using to full advantage the information which lower schools are able and willing to furnish.

When all lower schools are able to furnish adequate records, consideration of college admission may begin where they should always begin, during the first high-school years. There will then be time to separate the college material from the rabble and the most advantageous grooming given to those who must in future bear the intellectual burdens of civilization. Admission may then become active selection rather than passive acceptance of the best of those who happen for one reason or another to apply for admission to college.

More than 5,000 students are enrolled in German, French, and Spanish classes at the University of Wisconsin.

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· SCHOOL LIFE ·

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By THE DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR, BUREAU OF EDUCATION

Editor - - - - - - James C. Boykin

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MARCH, 1925

Valuable in Itself and For What It Has Stimulated

OF INESTIMABLE VALUE have been the provisions in the will of Cecil Rhodes to establish scholarships at Oxford University for students from the United States and from the British Dominions. The fact that about a hundred picked men from America are regularly in residence at an English University, and are thus beneficiaries of the generosity of the broad-minded donor, is of the greatest consequence because of its effect upon American educational ideals and in promoting the feeling of brotherhood between the two great English-speaking nations.

But the influence of the gift has gone far beyond its immediate effects. It has stimulated many American students not beneficiaries of the fund to seek a part of their education abroad, and its example has led to many other endowments, great and small, to aid students in foreign study.

Only yesterday the Bureau of Education received a visit from Miss Mabel Wellock, a young teacher in a London public school, and a prolific writer and lecturer, who is enjoying a scholarship of £250 and a six-months' leave of absence from her school in order that she may study methods of teaching reading in the schools of the United States. And to-day the announcement comes of the establishment of the John Simon Guggenheim Memorial Foundation, liberally endowing 40 or 50 fellowships for advanced study abroad. A preliminary gift of $3,000,000 from Simon Guggenheim, former United States Senator from Colorado, is the basis of the foundation. These are incidents of recent occurrence and are mentioned for that reason and because they are typical of many other worthy efforts to make of education a matter of world-wide aspect.

The advantages of travel as a means of education have been appreciated from early times; from colonial days to the present young Americans have sat beneath the influence of the great teachers of Europe; the Boxer indemnity fund has brought hundreds of Chinese to this country for study; nearly every educational institution in the United States has on its rolls a considerable number of foreign students; many organizations exist to promote the interchange of students and professors; and many of our great universities maintain "traveling fellowships."

Nevertheless the greatest stimulus in recent years in all this movement was from the Rhodes fund, and it must have first mention in all discussion of international exchange of education and good will.

Metamorphosis of American Educational Organization

IN DEVIOUS PATHS, but steadily and surely nevertheless, we are approaching the ideals of educational organization set forth more than a score of years ago by Dr. William R. Harper, president of the University of Chicago, who has been frequently called America's greatest educational statesman. Doctor Harper's plan, as presented to the meeting in 1902 of the schools affiliated with the University of Chicago, contemplated—

"1. The connecting of the work of the eighth grade of the elementary schools with that of the secondary schools.

"2. The extension of the work of the secondary schools to include the first two years of college work.

"3. The reduction of the work of these seven years thus grouped together to six years.

"4. To make it possible for the best class of students to do the work in five years."

So firmly imbued was Doctor Harper with these ideas that a year later—that is, in 1903—he is said to have predicted that "ten years from now the high schools all over the country will have added a fifth and sixth year and will be doing college work which now falls to the first two years of the college courses."

The ten years that he fixed went by without extensive actual change in the situation. In the meantime another educational statesman had become active. Dr. James H. Baker, president of the University of Colorado, began an agitation for revision of the educational program along lines similar in many respects to those advocated by Doctor Harper. After thorough investigation extending over several years, Doctor Baker and the able men associated with him on a committee of the National Education Association produced a report which was printed by the Bureau of Education under the title "Economy of Time in Education."

It is clear that Doctor Baker anticipated that prompt and general revision of the characteristic organization of American education would follow the publication of that report, for the need was conclusively proved. Both Doctor Harper and Doctor Baker were true prophets even if they failed to appraise the full force of the spirit of laissez faire in those who direct the individual institutions.

At last, 23 years after Doctor Harper's definite pronouncement and 12 years after Doctor Baker's report, it is evident that the tide is running strongly in the direction that they prognosticated. The recent movements in Massachusetts, Kansas, and Oregon, and the declared desire of President Goodnow of Johns Hopkins University to eliminate the freshman and sophomore classes of that institution, added to all that has gone before in California, Texas, Missouri, Illinois, Michigan, Minnesota, and many other States, prove the general acceptance of the junior college idea. It seems but a question of time when the traditional four-year college course as a unit will be modified materially in the majority of our institutions and even discarded in many of the universities under private control.

The junior high school, taking the pupils after six years of elementary study, seems to be equally a certain development of the early future, if it can not be considered as having already arrived. So strong is the attitude in its favor that it seems now to be merely a practical question of administration and finance to provide for its general adoption. Not only in this country, but even as far away as New Zealand, are its advantages realized, as the letter from Mark Cohen in another column of this issue shows.

We are definitely in a period of metamorphosis. It is inconceivable that in the final development we shall have as our national system that minute subdivision of institutions implied by the approved list which embraces (1) the kindergarten or preprimary school, (2) the elementary school, (3) the junior high school, (4) the senior high school, (5) the junior college, (6) the senior college, and (7) the professional or graduate school. All these we shall have, undoubtedly, but not as separate institutions.

The place of the kindergarten is with the primary school as an integral part of public education. The kindergarten, maintained apart and without coordination with the classes which normally follow it, is fast disappearing.

In the cities junior high schools distributed with reference to the convenience of the pupils are desirable not only from the pedagogical but from the administrative standpoint. There is no longer need for argument in that relation.

Combination of junior colleges with senior high schools in every municipality

whose population justifies it has been repeatedly proved advantageous in theory and in practice. To consider only one aspect of the question, it is cheaper to educate a young man at home than abroad. State taxes are borne largely by the cities, and when all the cities provide for the higher education of their own youth State taxes may be by so much reduced.

The time will never come when State universities will lose their usefulness, nor indeed can it be foreseen that they will be able to dispense with their freshman and sophomore classes, for they must continue to provide (1) for those who reside in their immediate vicinity, (2) for those who reside in localities in which no junior colleges are provided, and (3) for individuals in cities who desire to take the full four-year college course in one institution.

One of the greatest advantages in bringing the senior high school and the junior college under the same organization is in the possibility of overcoming the grievous overlapping and duplication which are well known to exist between the high school and the college. Doctor Harper's view that one year may be thus saved by the average student and two years by the best is in substantial agreement with the statement of Doctor Baker and his associates that two years may well be saved from the entire course of study. Recent studies especially those by Dr. Leonard V. Koos, of the University of Minnesota, lead to like conclusions. The full measure of benefit from this coordination will come only after extended experience, and it has not yet been realized.

The establishment of junior high schools, senior high schools, and junior colleges in small cities and in rural districts must of necessity be handled according to local conditions. The combinations to be made must be determined by practical considerations, but they offer no insuperable difficulties. The objective should always be to provide the highest practicable grade of education which the population of each community warrants, and to bring the higher grades as near as possible to the student.

Private junior colleges do not now in general confine themselves to the work of two years, and there is no reason why they should do so. It is entirely fitting for such institutions to offer the work of the senior high school and even of the junior high school if circumstances demand it.

The universities, freed in whole or in part from the lower classes, may and will adopt a different attitude toward their student body and will be able more readily to arrange their professional and other advanced courses as units beginning with the junior year. Only distinct gain can come to them from the separation of the junior colleges.

Chicago Board Provides Classes for Adults Wherever They Are Wanted

Active Cooperation of Club Men and Women. Schools in Railroad Yards, Factories, Office Buildings—Everywhere! Recreation Combined with Work and Students Enjoy Their Experiences

By FLORENCE C. FOX

Assistant Specialist in City Schools, Bureau of Education

WORKMEN in the yards of a large railroad corporation in Chicago were eager to learn English. Through the yard physician they secured the services of Miss Wetmore, the supervisor of adult education in the city school system. Where to find a place to hold the "school" was the next problem. When they had found an empty freight car in the yard the manner of heating it was another obstacle, for the thermometer was registering about 13 degrees below zero. Finally the car was shunted down the track and connected with a steam pipe, and the lessons were quickly under way.

This is only one of many lines of work that are carried on in Chicago to make American citizens out of the foreigners who find their way here, or the native Americans who have lacked opportunities for education and are illiterate. Mothers' classes are held in school buildings and in settlement houses. These women talk English brokenly; they write it awkwardly; they spell it haltingly. Yet a gleam of triumph can be seen in their eyes as they conquer some particularly difficult word pronunciation or letter formation.

Women's Clubs are Especially Active

The women of the city take charge of these classes and in all new school buildings a special room is set aside for the work. In all the women's clubs committees are working night and day in this service. Club women teach, and the Colonial Dames pay for the care of children during the mother's lessons. The Council of Jewish Women make a house to house canvas and gather in the women who desire to join one of the classes. The Daughters of the American Revolution, the women's city clubs, the Women's Christian Temperance Union, and many others in different localities are all helping the plucky woman who presides over the varied lines of work throughout the city.

Factory classes, including both men and women, are held in nearly all manufacturing plants. Hotel classes are made up of bus boys, kitchen people, and room girls. A survey of environment largely conducted by the association of commerce is part of the plan. This organization maintains a standing committee of 18 for printing necessary material and a "flying squadron" of 37 for field work. They donated last year $10,000 toward necessary expenses. Men's organizations throughout the city are active in this work.

In the stores the porters who scrub the floors and the window washers are eager participants in these study hours. Many of the large department stores donate an hour of the worker's time for this lesson.

Opportunities for Night Workers

Many superintendents of office buildings offer opportunities to their scrub women who work at night to spend an hour in learning the rudiments of the three R's. "These women are overworked and overtired," Miss Wetmore said to me. "They go home in the morning to housekeeping and the care of children with little time for rest and sleep before their work begins again in the evening. We try to give them a good time along with the instruction and many of them come early on their own time to enjoy the recreations and entertainments we provide for them."

"It is all a very flexible program," she continued; "at any time, any place, the year round, wherever there are people who want to be taught we establish classes for them." "How are the teachers trained" I asked? "Many now are in preparation," she replied. "A course of teacher training in this work has been established by the board of education at the city training college where school credit is given students. Institutes are held six times per year where methods are discussed, and they are largely attended by club women. The Illinois State general federation has its classes for teacher training." Many other agencies she mentioned which are helping to prepare instructors to assist in a movement so little known and advertised, and yet so vital in its effect on the civic life of the city.

Nine foreign countries are represented at the Kansas State Agricultural College. The president of the Cosmopolitan Club of the college is a native of India.

Oxford University in the View of an American Rhodes Scholar

Impressions Described Two Years After Graduation. Extravagance of Natural Beauty and Variety of Wondrous Architecture. Immutable Customs Which Every Student Must Adopt or be Unhappy. Many Newcomers Erroneously Consider "Dons" as Fossils. Examination System Makes Cramming Impossible. Nearly all Students Participate in Athletics and no Questions of Eligibility Arise

By JNO. J. TIGERT

PERHAPS there is no place in the world about which so much has been said and written as the splendid and historic city of Oxford, nestling in the arms of the Isis and the Cherwell like a setting of beautiful gems. The extravagance of her natural beauty and the variety of her wondrous architecture have been for centuries an unending marvel to admiring tourists and a ceaseless pride to loyal Britons. This "City of Spires," with her profusion of pointed pinnacles, rounded domes, and towering battlements, which from their summits "whisper the last enchantment of the Middle Ages," with her green, velvety quadrangles and world-renowned walks, has beggared the descriptive powers of the ablest writers and has furnished an absorbing topic for literary tyros.

She has long been the Utopian ideal of the British youth, viewed prospectively with longing anticipation in school and retrospectively with unfading memory and undying devotion in afterlife. The sketches of Oxford are legion, colored by artists from every viewpoint. The picture of her which comes from the hand of the resident Briton differs from that of the transient American tourist as a canvas of some old Italian master differs from that of a modern impressionistic painter.

The old Oxonian portrays her in a manner which appears lurid to the one who has dwelt in the ancient seat of learning on the banks of the Cam, and is unappreciated by those who are unfamiliar with the life of either of the great English universities. Again, as Andrew Lang points out, the pictures drawn by Oxford men themselves are as numerous as the myriad types of undergraduates. The fact that he possesses an entirely new point of view is the only apology which an American Rhodes scholar may offer for writing about a subject already so trite and worn.

My first impressions of Oxford were not altogether favorable, and this, I think, is true of most Rhodes scholars who go to Oxford from this country. One could hardly expect it to be otherwise when he considers that the American youth, dropped suddenly into the unique environment of Oxford, is about as much out of his element as the proverbial fish out of water. But, with few exceptions, they speedily adapt themselves to the new conditions, and as soon as they have done this Oxford becomes for them a place of enchantment, which they learn to love and revere and are loth to leave. And yet some, unfortunately, remain disgruntled to the end of their three years' career, due in every instance to a failure to conform to the conventional life of the place. Instead of casting themselves into the molds of Oxford customs and ideas, which are indeed as immutable as the laws of the Persians and the Medes, with characteristic American boldness and energy they strive to remold and override these time-honored traditions with the latest American fads.

These misplaced endeavors do not affect Oxford life one jot or one tittle, but reflect much unhappiness upon those who are guilty of them and are a source of annoyance to others. The maxim "When in Rome, do as Romans do" is both wise and conducive to happiness when applied at Oxford. But be it said, again, to the credit of most of the Rhodes men, they are not so insensible and obdurate as long to "kick against the pricks," and wisely giving up the effort to Americanize Oxford and docilely allowing themselves to be Oxfordized—if one may use this term—thereby convert their own dissatisfaction into happy contentment and materially contribute to the peace of others. A love and a veneration for the old place springs up in their hearts, which continues to grow till the last moment of sojourn within her gates. I have in mind one who declared soon after his arrival at Oxford that he would resign his scholarship at the end of the first year, but who not only completed the three years, but even continued in residence at his own expense after the expiration of his scholarship.

HIGH STREET, OXFORD

Architecturally this street is regarded by many as the finest in the world. In the foreground on the left is University College, and on the right is Queen's College. The spire in the center is of St. Mary's, the University Cathedral

Probably the first thing that attracted my notice after my arrival at Oxford was the ancient atmosphere of the place and what appeared to me to be old-fashioned tendencies. I thought the "Dons" fossil-

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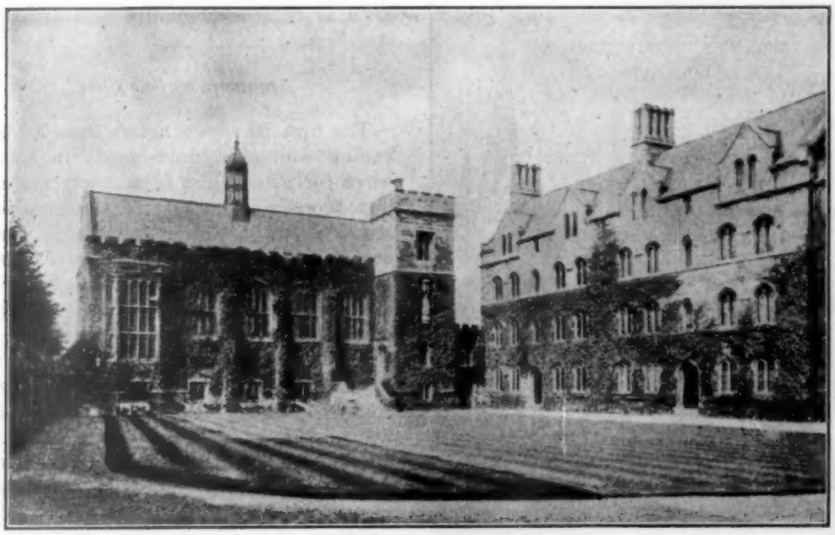
ized, and much of Oxford worthy of relegation to a gallery of antiquities. In fact, Macaulay somewhere expresses a similar opinion of the Oxford of his day. This feeling on my part, which was shared with the other young Americans, is no doubt accounted for by the great difference in character of American universities and the sharp contrast which Oxford presents to them.



PEMBROKE COLLEGE

Attended by the author of this article. Dr. Samuel Johnson wrote the first English dictionary there. William Blackstone and Sir Thomas Brown were students

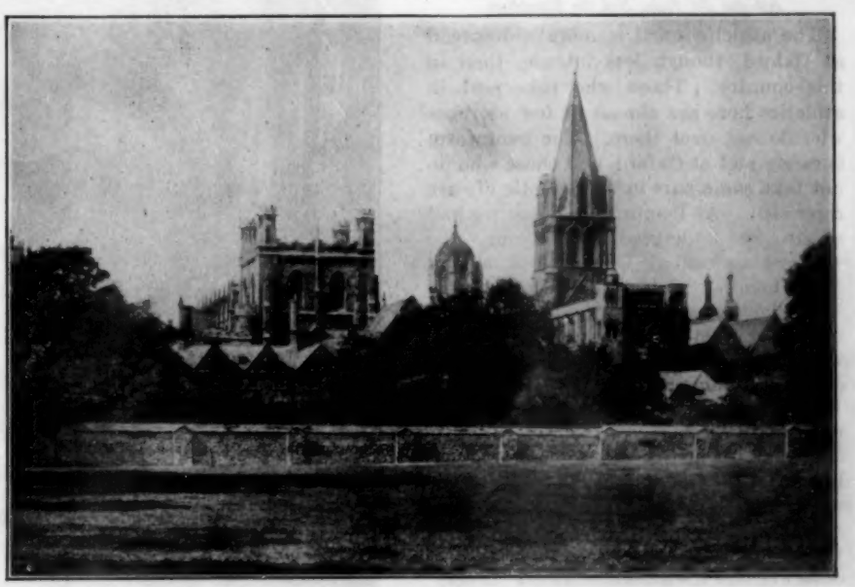
Institutions of learning on this side of the Atlantic, with a few possible exceptions, are far too young to have developed unchanging customs and stereotyped modes such as have remained inviolate at Oxford through generations of passing undergraduates. Our institutions, in their present unsettled condition, readily permit rapid changes under what we believe to be a progressive spirit—and no doubt we have more ample opportunity for progress than exists at Oxford. The simple matter of dress well illustrates the point. American college styles change annually, and vary from one extreme to the other, whereas at Oxford changes in dress are scarcely perceptible, and the soft cap, Norfolk jacket, and grey flannel trousers are well-nigh perennial. In this particular, at least, I think I prefer the Oxford way; it is certainly less troublesome and more inexpensive.

It is undoubtedly true that the Dons are sometimes impractical and unacquainted with expeditious business methods—a fact which impressed itself upon Mr. Rhodes—but it is equally true that, as a rule, they are far more competent and thorough in their scholarship than our American professors. One seldom finds a Don who is not kind and affable. Many display extraordinary personal interest in their young hopefuls, and few fail to obtain the reverence and love of those who daily sit at their feet for instruction and guidance.

The close personal contact of tutor and tutored affords a considerable advantage, I think, over our classroom system. In our large institutions the instructors rarely ever know in a personal way the men who compose their classes and almost as rarely recognize them by sight outside the classroom. So acknowledged is this evil that in some of our larger universities, notably at Princeton, a system has been introduced which is similar to the Oxford tutorial system. Furthermore, the Oxford device of making everything depend upon a single searching examination seems to result in greater thoroughness and more lasting knowledge. In our colleges, where examinations are set every semester, and these upon a few specified texts, it is often easy to neglect the regular work in the classroom, and then, by a single night's cramming, to make a creditable showing when the examination test comes. Knowledge which was gathered in this manner I found to be superficial and transient. Crammed knowledge doesn't stick very long.

At Oxford cramming is a sheer impossibility. It would require several months, reading night and day, to run hastily through the volumes which might be considered the bare essentials for an Oxford honor school. The fact that the examinations are set upon no definitely prescribed texts, but simply upon the subjects, and the additional fact that the examiners are not likely to be the tutors of the examinees or even the lecturers whom they have heard, are features which struck me as peculiarly advantageous. Under these conditions there is very little prospect of "spotting" the questions which an examiner will ask, and it is evident that it requires more work and is productive of more lasting knowledge to master many lectures and books from various sources than to acquire the substance of a single text. To know, for example, all that is contained in Anson's book on contracts, admirable though it is, is not to know the law of contract.

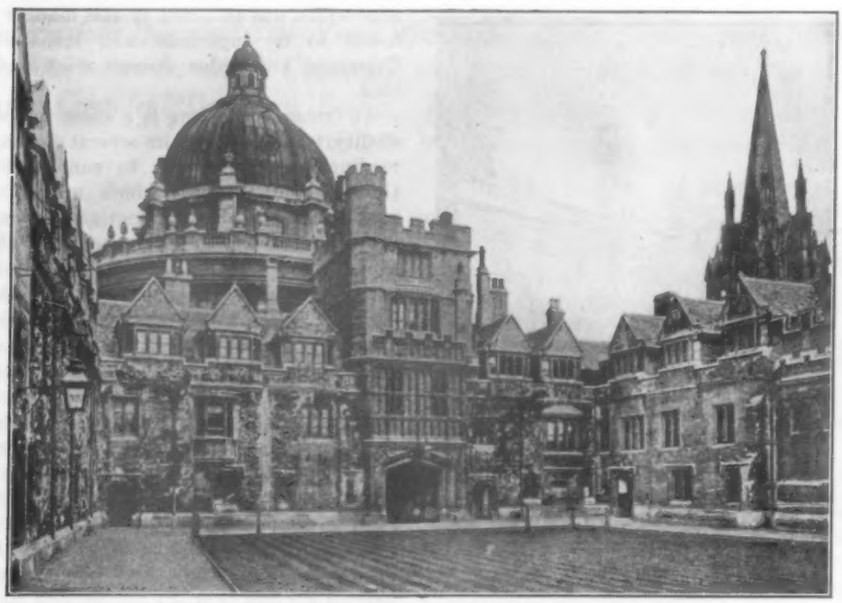
These are some of the salient features which impressed me about the Oxford system. In justice to our own institutions I might say that though it appears from what I have said that our institutions lack somewhat in thoroughness, yet this is largely offset by the breadth of our courses. Our graduates have a wider acquaintance with the various branches of knowledge and science than



CHRIST CHURCH COLLEGE AND CATHEDRAL

In the background is "Old Tom" Tower, which was designed by Sir Christopher Wren

graduates of Oxford, even though they are apt to deal with them in glittering generalities without a thorough grasp of any one branch. Such a grasp comes with us only in the specialization which



INSIDE THE QUADRANGLE OF BRASENOSE COLLEGE

In the background is the dome of Radcliffe Library, a part of the great Bodleian Library, and the spire of St. Mary's Cathedral

one gets in the work for a doctor's degree or a professional course, and as a matter of fact undergraduate work at Oxford resembles largely the work of our graduate schools. This explains the fact, often astonishing to Americans, that at Oxford the master's degree is acquired without additional work after one has taken the bachelor's degree. All that is necessary is the lapse of a certain period of time and the payment of fees.

Athletes the Rule, Not the Exception

The athletic spirit is more widespread at Oxford, though less intense, than in this country. Those who take part in athletics here are almost as few as those who do not over there. The bookworm is rarely met at Oxford, and those who do not take some part in the athletic life are rarer still. At Pembroke College we had about 80 undergraduates, being the smallest college at Oxford, but almost every member of the college represented it in some phase of sport. I can remember days when an actual majority of us were engaged in intercollegiate contests of various kinds on the same afternoon. But where athletes are the rule and not the exception, they cease to be heroes and demigods. The great oarsman, footballer, or cricketer in England does not see his picture in the daily papers and read lurid accounts of his prowess on the water and the gridiron. This is seldom done even for the most celebrated "Blues."

The number of men engaged is a greater test for the utility of athletics than the extraordinary excellence of a few representing the college or university. Measured by this utilitarian principle of the greatest benefit to the greatest number, we are far behind old-fashioned Oxford in this respect. Again, no American who indulges in sport at Oxford will fail to be impressed by the gentlemanly and equitable character of the contests. Unnecessary roughness in football is conspicuous for its absence, and wrangling is unknown. I played tennis in my college six for the three years of my stay at Oxford, and I have never known a disagreement, though the players make all the decisions themselves without an umpire or other third party. The most commendable thing, however, is the complete absence of professionalism. This germ, which oftentimes has killed athletics in our institutions, is nonexistent at Oxford, and no questions ever arise as regards eligibility and amateur standing.

Amusement on Both Sides

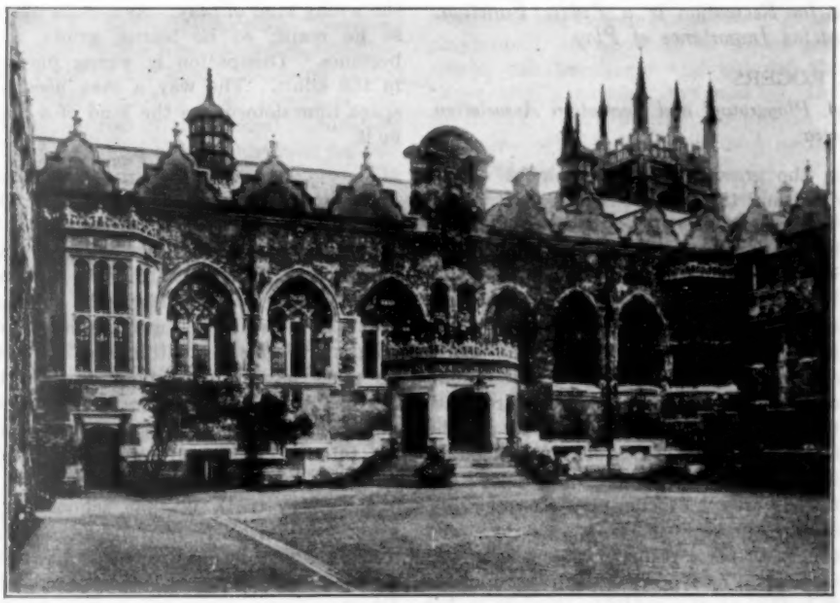
The first Rhodes scholars were an unending source of amusement in many ways for some time after their arrival, but there was no end of things which struck them as comical. I was often conscious of being a laughingstock, but quite as frequently I had a laugh at the expense of my English cousins. During our early days at Oxford many of us created a good deal of amusement by appearing on the river in the many-colored garbs of our native institutions, instead of donning the conventional white sweaters and "shorts." One day I appeared wearing the yellow V of Vanderbilt University on my breast. The privilege of wearing the varsity letter in this country corresponds to the prerogative of wearing the blue at Oxford or Cambridge. An Englishman seeing me from one of the barges inquired of a Rhodes scholar, who happened to be standing near: "What does that V stand for?" "It stands for Vanderbilt," was the reply. "Oh," exclaimed the young Briton. "Is that Mr. Vanderbilt?"

My days at Oxford are branded deep into my heart, and already I look upon them as the most potent years of my life; but I anticipate that as time goes by and I get a wider perspective of them

CHRIST CHURCH DINING HALL

Christ Church College was founded by Cardinal Wolsey. It was attended by several of the Kings of England and by a number of premiers, including Gladstone

I shall realize more fully their true significance. I am now convinced that when I went to England I was filled with many prejudices, and my opinions of things British were badly warped. And this is generally true of Americans, whose patriotism and love for their own country



QRIEL COLLEGE

Attended by Cecil Rhodes, founder of the Rhodes scholarships

received their first impulse from and are fostered by the stories of the Revolutionary War and the deplorable annals of 1812.

The life at Oxford destroyed in me those germs of enmity, and engendered in their stead a feeling of love and pride in the marvelous old mother country, whose past history is unequaled even by that of ancient Greece or lordly Rome, and whose flag has gone around the world with civilization, peace, and goodwill following in its wake. As the years fly, by the hearts of the Rhodes scholars will beat with ever-increasing love for our royal, imperial alma mater, and with deepening gratitude to our great benefactor—Cecil John Rhodes.

David Livingstone is linked with Lord Clive and Sir Stamford Raffles as an empire builder, and assigned as the subject for an essay in a prize contest offered by the Royal Colonial Institute, open to pupils in all schools in the British Empire as well as to all British children wherever located.

A class for parents who seek information on child training during the preschool period will be established by the Denver public schools. The whole course is not yet determined, and the class is frankly an experiment.

Too Many Changes in Teaching Personnel

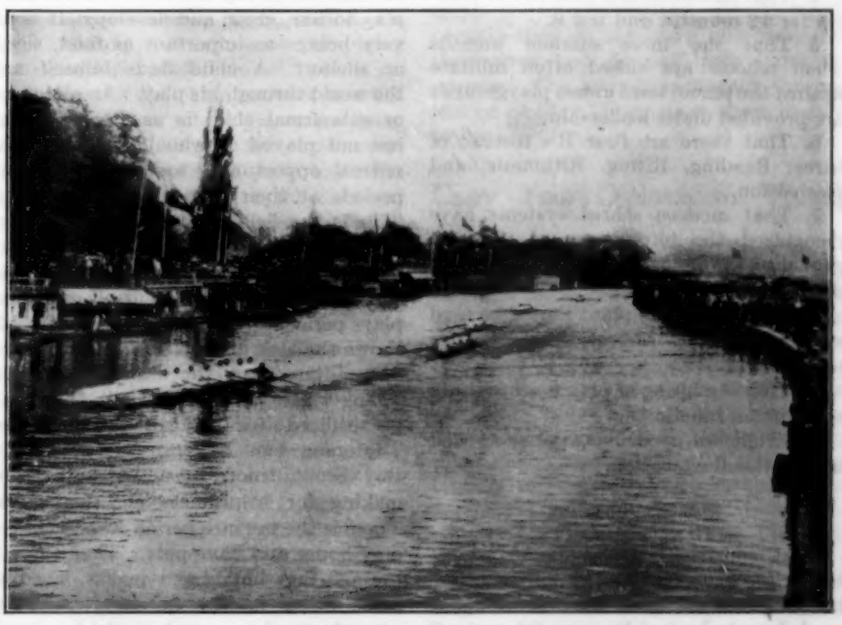
Two and a half years was the average tenure of principals and superintendents in South Carolina schools in 1923–24. At that time 86 per cent were serving their first, second, or third year. The median tenure for the United States, according to the 1923 National Education Association Year Book, is but three years.

A study of the situation in South Carolina shows that the holding power of small rural schools for both principals and teachers is very low, and that, even in the small towns, only about 50 per cent remain more than two years. In the larger towns and cities 60.2 of the superintendents could show a service of five years or more, the period ranging from 6 to 30 years.

Explanations suggested for these conditions are that many teachers after the first year discover their inaptitude for the work or become discouraged by the lack of future offered in salary and promotion and to the want of cooperation on the part of school boards, especially in small places, too many of whom "hire and fire" every year. The situation demands consideration and action, in the opinion of the University of South Carolina's Weekly News. Immediate needs are higher educational qualifications for superintendents and teachers, more adequate rewards for service in the way of compensation and advancement, more intelligent cooperation on the part of parents and school boards, and teaching conditions that will attract men and women of ability and training.

Higher Prices Cause Greater Economy

Large savings in the purchase of textbooks and supplies, variously estimated at $14,988 and at $33,305, were made in one year by the Newark, N. J., public schools, by the adoption of a plan of viseing orders for such supplies. Present prices of textbooks are 55 per cent higher than in 1914, and in order that funds might be used to the best advantage a system was adopted providing for the viseing of all orders of principals, with the results stated. Great care is exercised that economy is not gained at the expense of injury to the schools. The aim is to have all helps needed, but no waste.



A BUMPING RACE ON THE ISIS

Each of the 22 colleges of Oxford University has an "eight" and a barge. In these races any shell which is bumped from behind must withdraw

Avocational Education Approaches Vocational in Importance

Commercialized Amusements Constitute America's Greatest Industry. Neither Children nor Adults Know How to Play. Provision for Recreation is a Public Function. Modern School Systems Recognizing Importance of Play

By JAMES E. ROGERS

Director Community Recreation Training School, Playground and Recreation Association of America

AMERICANS need to learn the art of enjoyment; of self-entertainment. To so great a degree have we lost the art of self-expression that we pay to be entertained. The greatest American industry is that of commercialized amusements. Is this not an indication that we are losing the art of self-expression, the real purpose of education? We must teach children to play wisely and wholesomely. Children do not know how to play. Grown folks do not themselves recreate because they do not "know how." The city, the machine, the distribution of labor, and other agencies have robbed man of his birthright.

A Confession of Faith

These truths I believe to be self-evident:

1. That constructive, wholesome recreation is real education.
2. That school playgrounds are as essential as school buildings.
3. That provision for recreation is a public function—a municipal utility as much as are streets, sewers, and water supply.
4. That education is a year-round process for 12 months, and not 9.
5. That the three summer months when schools are closed often militate against the school term unless playgrounds are provided under leadership.
6. That there are four R's instead of three: Reading, Riting, Rithmetic, and Recreation.
7. That modern school systems have recognized the importance of play by providing the space, the facilities, and the direction.
8. That the school plant should be used as a community recreation plant after school hours.
9. That the hiring of play teachers is an educational function.
10. That we need avocational as well as vocational education.

Play and Education

That constructive play is an educational force of real and potential value has long been recognized. One needs but read Joseph Lee's "Play in Education" to know the significance of this instinct in the growth and development of the child and the adult. Groos's two books, "Play of Animals" and "Play of Man," have demonstrated their educational values. Richard Cabot's "What Men Live By" elevates play to the fine arts and proves that it is one of the most powerful instincts, making for the health and joy of the individual and the human race. Children and men must recreate themselves through their play. The founders of modern educational thought have all stressed this potential educational force. Froebel, Pestalozzi, Rousseau, Montessori, Wirt, Dewey, and others all place primary values upon this all central and powerful interest motive. It is the creative motif in life. It makes for the arts. It means the culture of the race. It is through this medium that man feeds his imagination, emotions, and soul. If the materials be fine, he, too, will be fine; if they are bad, he will reflect his materials.

Play and the Child

Play is the serious business of childhood. Play is preparation for life. It is life and the living thereof. A child must play to live, grow, and develop. It is his very being—as important as food, sleep, or shelter. A child finds himself and the world through his play. An abnormal or subnormal child is usually one who has not played or who has not had the normal opportunity to express its play periods at their proper time and place. This is the field of study—the influence of play on the defective and the delinquent. Child psychologists tell us that the child must express itself at these play periods; if it does not, after life shows the lack and defects. There is the "big Injun" age, the dramatic age, the "gang" age, and others—all these can be utilized for educational purposes. The gang can be transformed into a Boy Scout troop or a baseball team, making for helpfulness and teamwork. There is the nurture period when children play house and have pets. Then there is the age that builds and makes, when we must bring in the handcrafts. Playgrounds are doing much in the handcraft field. There is, too, the rhythmic period when children learn coordination and bodily poise. We must give proper outlet to these desires to nurture, to build, to throw, to run, to dance. If we do not, we shall have abnormalities, perversions, and delinquencies. Mischief is the play instinct perverted or gone astray. It is the wrong kind of play. As a child plays, so he reaps; so he learns, grows, and becomes. Dissipation is wrong playing in the adult. The way a man uses his spare time determines the kind of a man he is.

The Adult and Play

As the child plays so will the adult find his recreation. Wholesome recreation is needed for older folks. For the adult play is a part of his rational living. It is an indispensable part of his daily routine. He needs it as much as a job, a family, or religion. Sometime within the 24 hours he must have wholesome recreation to refresh, relax, and recuperate. He must find expression for his desires, his dreams, his talents; if not, unrest and trouble result.

Our next truth is that school playgrounds and athletic fields are as essential as the school buildings. This is an axiom growing in importance. One need but travel over the country to see the splendid spaces bought by school boards for playgrounds. Joliet, Ill., a town of 50,000, has 1 school with 20 acres and the others average more than 5 acres for play. We talk no longer in terms of square feet per child, but in acres per school. Elyria, Ohio, a town of 25,000, has just bought an athletic field of 18 acres for its high school. These are not isolated places but are average. High schools now have their stadiums, as, for instance, the schools of Tacoma, San Diego, Peoria, and many others. What the Gary, Ind., school system did is proverbial. Every school has a playground a block square and a gymnasium and auditorium. In modern school systems more space is devoted to playgrounds and athletics than to the school buildings.

School Playgrounds as Necessary as School Buildings

Need we ask why? All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy. A systematic and educationally conducted recess, with noon and afternoon play period, makes for better students and better class work. This has been tested and proven. It means clearer brains, more active bodies, newer blood, rejuvenated muscles, and all this makes for better study and recitations.

Then again, we know that playgrounds and athletic fields are in themselves classrooms where the greatest lessons of life and character are taught and learned; hence the need of an educator or leader in

charge of this delicate laboratory. In play periods we have the biggest opportunity to teach ethics and morals. We need not have a special recitation for these subjects. Moral conduct and ethical training are taught by act and not precept. It is doing right, not preaching it, that helps us to form right habits. Your playground is your training camp. Here can be taught, under wise leadership, fair play, the rules of the game, following skilled leadership, and the other lessons of life. Here is real fundamental education. These are the lessons that make for success in the individual and in society. For this reason schools should maintain their physical education and recreation departments for 12 months rather than 9.

Recreation a Public Function

Our next truth is that recreation is a public function—a municipal utility. It is remarkable to what extent and how rapidly this fact has been recognized over the country. The Year Book of the Playground and Recreation Association of America shows that nearly 700 cities and towns of all sizes and all types are now providing recreational facilities from tax funds. In many instances the school department is doing much, and rightly so, because it already has the grounds, the buildings, the facilities, the teachers, and the children. Milwaukee through its school board spends hundreds of thousands of dollars a year for its school recreation centers devoted largely in the evenings to adult recreation. Chicago operates many school centers for neighborhood recreation. Cleveland, New York, Detroit, San Francisco, and practically all of our large city-school systems use the school plant for recreation both for children and adults. Not only is this true of the large cities but also of many smaller communities. Not only high schools but often grammar schools have large gymnasiums and auditoriums.

A Year-round Process

Education is a year-round process which can not be cut off at the end of nine months. Universities are now talking of four quarters and are holding summer sessions. This use of the facilities all the time means economy and efficiency. Is it not a waste to use school lands and buildings only 5 hours of 24, 5 days out of 7, and 9 months out of 12? No industry could be conducted on this plan.

The school plant should be operated in the afternoons and evenings for physical education and recreation and it should not be closed during the summer. Any principal or teacher knows what a summer vacation means to discipline and scholarship, especially if these summers have been spent in mischief on the street. It takes weeks to get regular school work back to its normal routine. Many a fine student has been ruined by a bad summer.

Study your problem of retardation and discover what influence the wanton play of summer had to do with it. These three months during the summer can be fruitful of the best in education. On the playground, in addition to games and sports, can be taught and enjoyed the handcrafts, gardening, toy making, and rhythmics. Here on the playground is the place where vocational and avocational education becomes one.

Recreation is not only an instrument for health, the correction of physical defects and a mental stimulus, but it is profoundly an instrument for character building and for citizenship. Play has tremendous educational power because it touches the soul, it catches the child through its own initiative and imagination. Recreation builds morals, discipline, and loyalty. Why did the Army camps use recreation as a morale builder? What develops the spirit of loyalty in college more than the "sings," the cheer leaders, the sports, and the recreational life? Shall we not harness and use this force for the best? The way to reach the child's soul is through its interests, its desires, its dreams.

Modern School Systems Alive to Their Opportunities

The next truth is that school systems are now providing more adequately for play space, facilities, and leadership. Few modern school buildings are erected which do not include a gymnasium and auditorium. Most high schools now have swimming pools. A high school in a town of 50,000 recently spent $20,000 for its stage scenery, lights, and equipment. School authorities are providing for recreational leadership, and many are taking care of the three summer months. In large numbers school plants are being used after school hours for community, social, and recreational purposes. The grounds are opened after school hours for the play of the neighborhood. The buildings are thrown open in the evening for neighborhood recreation and social gatherings. The gymnasium is used not only by the school teams but in the evening by city teams and industrial leagues. And this is right and just, because these facilities are public property and should be functioning for the larger rather than the smaller part of the 24 hours of the day. The stage is now used by the community for little theater groups. The auditorium is serving for community lectures, music memory contests, and for the use of parent-teacher associations. In brief, the whole school plant, indoor and outdoor, is becoming a community center, functioning for the social and recreational needs of all throughout the year.

The Need for Leadership

Recreation leaders and physical education teachers are as essential as history and mathematics teachers. The difficulty is to get the trained worker and leader. Colleges, universities, and special training schools can not graduate them fast enough to meet the demand. Workers in this field must be more than mere coaches or drillers in setting-up exercises. They must be community-minded organizers and executives who think of having every school boy and girl participating in the games and activities—everyone doing something worth while. The leader should be an educator who selects his activities because of their educational values. Such a leader does not emphasize picked teams and stars, but rather the progressive development of every pupil. Care must be taken in the selection of such a person. Athletics can make or break a school system, and the leader is in a strategic position to do good or evil. He can teach ideals and character building, sportsmanship and fair play, or he can do infinite evil by advocating the gospel of win at any cost, by "hook or crook." Too often we employ mere coaches—winners of games—rather than conservators of health, right living, and happiness.

Teaching the Art of Living

We must have vocational training, for in order to live we must know how to earn a living. Most people do not know how to live properly because they have not been taught. Most children do not know how to play because they have not been directed. The majority of adults are dependent upon mechanical amusement or commercialized entertainment because they do not know how to amuse themselves and do not have inner resources. The school must teach the real lessons of life. They must show us how to live.

Carry Your Diploma in Visiting Italy

Bona fide students may obtain free entrance to Italian galleries, museums, etc. Harry P. Fletcher, American ambassador at Rome, in a dispatch to the Secretary of State calls attention to the Italian laws governing the issue of permits for this purpose. Degrees and diplomas, or other credentials, submitted must be authenticated by an Italian diplomatic representative or consular officer accredited to this country or by the American ambassador at Rome. Persons who desire this privilege are warned by Ambassador Fletcher to take the necessary steps before leaving the United States.

School and Public Libraries in Small Communities of Indiana

Indiana Law Requires Every School to Have a Library. In Small Communities Books are Generally Poorly Selected and Not Properly Kept. Public Libraries in Better Condition

By ARTHUR R. CURRY
Secretary Indiana Library Commission

IN SPEAKING of the relation in small communities between the school library and the public library, I shall discuss briefly the present conditions of the school libraries and the public libraries in small communities in Indiana, and then I shall mention what is done by the commission to further library service to children of school age.

My observation has been limited, but as it accords with the findings of a committee which made a thorough survey of our school libraries in 1921 I assume that my statement of conditions will be accurate.

The law requires that each of our several thousand schools shall have a library, but the collections of books in the most of our schools hardly merit the name of libraries. They are, in the main, out-of-date books, without classification or arrangement, scattered in various classrooms. Sets of authors, series of the poets, miscellaneous textbooks, and old encyclopedias constitute the average school library. The books have been purchased for many of the schools from book agents without any provision for their care or use. Consequently they are poorly selected, poorly cared for, and little used.

Book Lists are Effectively Employed

In the public libraries in small communities the books have been better selected, are better cared for, and are in more constant use. This is largely accounted for by the facts that many of our librarians in small communities have had a summer school course in library work and have had considerable aid from the public library commission. Members of the commission staff have been making advisory visits to these libraries for many years, and to most of the small libraries the commission has distributed a book list, which has been of great service as a guide to the selection of books. At present the book list is sent to every public library in the State whose income is less than $1,500 a year. For a number of years libraries receiving less than $3,500 annually received the book list as a gift from the commission.

In general the librarians in small communities have less education than the teachers in the same communities. The school does have standards for the teachers; the library boards may employ whom they please. Thus we found fair book collections and poorly educated persons on the one hand and better educated persons and poor book collections on the other. This situation does not make for satisfactory cooperation between the school and the public library.

Personality of Librarian Means Much

The degree in which school children use the public library depends very largely upon the ability of the local librarian. In some cases the librarian merely lends to those who come for the books; in others she provides lists for outside reading and places the books for the several grades on separate shelves; in still others she places collections in the school rooms, supervises their use, makes talks on the use of books, and conducts a story hour. Sometimes classes are brought to the library for instruction in the use of the catalogue, reference books, etc. Many of our librarians have stimulated pupils to read for credit during vacation time. Little work of this sort, however, is done in our small communities.

The public library commission has always recognized its obligation to improve the condition of our school libraries, and it has served them generously for 20 years through supplying them with traveling library books. Back in 1904 a trained librarian, Miss Ida M. Mendenhall, who was also a college graduate with teaching experience, was employed to take charge of the commission's work with school libraries, and she gave lectures on library work in many of our State normal schools. Her work was greatly appreciated, but had to be discontinued because of insufficient funds. From 1916 to 1920 members of the staff visited schools to aid in putting the libraries into shape and to establish records and proper methods of care and service wherever the school authorities were willing to provide for the living expenses of the organizer while the work was done. Even this service had to be discontinued, and it was not until 1921, when Miss Della Frances Northey was added to the staff as supervisor of school libraries, that service to schools again became one of the main features of the commission's work.

It soon became apparent that school libraries once organized do not stay in condition, but the lapse of two or three years with incidental changes in the teaching staff usually result in the disintegration of any system of library records. And so we began our present method of surveying a county school system, in company with the county superintendent, and giving service to all the schools of a county rather than scattering our work over the whole State.

County Unit Will Benefit Libraries

A development now in prospect in Indiana is the establishment of the county unit of school administration. This, if it comes to pass, will eliminate some of the reckless book buying and duplication that has resulted from the purchases of township trustees. It should strengthen the school libraries as units and should tend to the establishment of more county libraries in our State.

Much progress is made through our cooperation with the State department of public instruction. Library standards have been set for both elementary and high schools, and we are using our best efforts to bring the schools into line with these standards. Those who wish the standards in detail will find them reprinted in the October number of the Library Occurrent. They are in full accord with the recommendations made in the Certain report. This is the report of the Committee on Library Organization and Equipment of the National Education Association and of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

We have discontinued our traveling library service to schools, except to State-aid schools, and are recommending that the schools build up their own working collections of reference books and supplementary reading sets. We urge them to rely upon the public libraries for their general reading, so as not to build up duplicate collections in the same locality. We are using the progress of the schools to stimulate better service on the part of public libraries, so that they will prove worthy of the part they are to take in the educational program of the State.

An address before the League of Library Commissions, Chicago, January 2, 1925.

The American Home Economics Association offers a prize of $50 to the person who submits the best design for an emblem of the association to be used on the cover of the Journal of Home Economics and on the stationery, programs, badges, and pins of the association and its affiliated organizations. Competing drawings should be sent to Harriet Goldstein, Division of Home Economics, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, Minn.

A Christmas celebration at Santa Rosa, Nueva Ecija, P. I.

American Methods Prevail in Philippine Education

Philippine schools are conducted according to American methods and ideals as far as possible. Luther Parker, acting division superintendent of schools of Nueva Ecija, writes that for many years he has emphasized character training by means of pupil participation in the activities of the schools and by the designation in each large school of a supervisor of character training.

His division embraces a population of 250,000, and 32,000 children are in 200 schools. An earnest effort is made to utilize the latest and best methods employed in the States. Mr. Parker writes cordially of the benefit which he has received from SCHOOL LIFE. Teachers' institutes, parent-teacher associations, safety leagues, bands of mercy, and many other auxiliary organizations which Americans are accustomed to consider peculiarly their own have a prominent place in the school economy of this Province, at least, of the Philippines.

School Nurses Successfully Used in Massachusetts

Until the advent of the school nurse, health programs in rural Massachusetts were very inadequate. In many towns medical inspection was the only feature, though some towns made provision for oral hygiene. Fairhaven, Falmouth, and several other towns have done splendid health work in the schools for more than a decade. Eighty towns of less than 5,000 population have been conducting dental clinics for one or more years. Some had traveling clinics operating under the auspices of farm bureaus, while others were conducted in cooperation with municipal authorities, nursing associations, or branches of the American Red Cross.

Since the enactment of legislation requiring the employment of school nurses in all towns, improvement has been marked. Nutrition and dental work are promoted, weighing and measuring are done in practically all towns, and during the past year many towns have served milk to grade pupils during the morning session. The nurse helps the school physician with the annual physical examination and makes independent inspection of pupils and buildings. She visits the homes of pupils and confers with parents in regard to health problems. A recent investigation by the State Department of Education shows that fully 99 per cent of the pupils attending public schools in Massachusetts are receiving the benefit of school nursing service.

Important Accession to the National Organization

Utah parent-teacher associations have been admitted to full membership in the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. Heretofore the Utah associations have not been connected with the national organization, which now embraces 46 State branches.

The first local parent-teacher association in Salt Lake City was organized in 1908, according to reports, and since that time many associations have been formed throughout the State. In 1914 representatives of these associations united to form the Home and School League, which was affiliated with the Utah Educational Association. Child-welfare work, classes in health education for parents, and community recreation are among the activities of the Utah parent-teacher association.

Bureau of Education Attacks High-School Problem

Proposes to Assist in Systematizing Instruction. Enrollment Increasing Seven Times Faster than Population

ORGANIZATION of a new service in the Bureau of Education of the Interior Department for the purpose of assisting in solving the problems and systematizing the instruction in high schools throughout the country has been announced by Commissioner Jno. J. Tigert.

As a first step toward perfecting the proposed service, the commissioner called a conference of representatives of nine national and regional secondary education organizations to be held February 24 at Cincinnati in connection with the annual meeting of the department of superintendence.

Increase in attendance of high schools during recent years has made secondary education one of the big problems of free public education in the United States. For a long time most of the children left school after completing the grammar-school course, but during the past 30 years the attendance at high schools in this country has increased from 200,000 to 3,500,000. Enrollment in high schools is increasing seven times as fast as the Nation's total population. The development of the junior high school is an outgrowth of this situation.

The result has been a rapid reorganization and expansion of high schools that created serious problems. To assist in meeting these, the Bureau of Education is planning, at the request of interested educators, a permanent organization on a cooperative basis to act as a research agency and a clearing house of information.

The attempt to give the pupils of small high schools the same opportunities as the pupils of large high schools has entailed a much greater expense for the small schools. The average cost per pupil in the small schools is sometimes from 5 to 10 times as great as in the larger schools. The small schools comprise 80 per cent of all the high schools of the Nation, and they are attended largely by the farm population. They require, therefore, a different type of organization and of subject matter.

As a result of a "Learn English campaign" in Rochester, N. Y., the pledges of 2,500 persons to join a class in English and learn to speak, read, and write the language were obtained. The goal, originally set at 2,000, was raised when this mark was passed.

New Books in Education

BY JOHN D. WOLCOTT
Librarian Bureau of Education

ALMACK, JOHN C. *and* LANG, ALBERT R. Problems of the teaching profession. Boston, New York [etc.] Houghton, Mifflin company [1925] xvii, 340 p. 12°. (Riverside textbooks in education, ed. by E. P. Cubberley.)

The increased interest in the profession of teaching during recent years is a leading reason for the production of this book. It shows first what the leading professional problems are, and then follows with a statement of the factors involved in the solution. In several instances a new analysis and organization is attempted, and references are also made to pertinent scientific investigations, with a view to aiding teachers and teachers' organizations.

ATHEARN, WALTER S., *ed.* Measurements and standards in religious education, containing standards, scorecards, scales and other instruments of measurement developed for use in the Indiana survey of religious education, by Walter S. Athearn, W. L. Hanson, E. S. Evenden, N. L. Engelhardt, *and others*. New York, George H. Doran company [1924] 532 p. plates, tables, diagrs., forms, facsims. 8°. (The Indiana survey of religious education: vol. 2.)

The instruments of measurement described in this volume were used for studying, comparing, and interpreting the conditions of religious education in Indiana, and are suitable for use in similar surveys of other territory.

DEARBORN, NED HARLAND. An introduction to teaching. New York, London, D. Appleton and company, 1925. xv, 337 p. tables, forms. 12°.

The treatment of subjects in this book is from the viewpoint of beginning teachers and of beginning students of education. The work is intended to serve at least three functions, namely, guidance in selecting the teaching position for which a candidate is best qualified, a survey of professional preparation, and the development of a proper professional attitude.

FLEXNER, ABRAHAM. Medical education; a comparative study. New York, The Macmillan company, 1925. ix, 334 p. 8°.

The general tendencies and operative principles in the development of medical education in the United States and in certain European countries are here made the subject of a comparative study. The book discusses first the basic conceptions regarding medicine and medical education, passing to a characterization of the clinical, the university, and the proprietary types of medical schools. The general education demanded as preliminary to a medical course is next described, giving special attention to the requirements in basic sciences and modern languages. The medical curriculum as found in Europe and in America is also compared, followed by discussions of the laboratory sciences, of the clinics, and of institutes for medical research, closing with the important subject of costs. Mr. Flexner's analysis of the conditions affecting medical education is capable of application to other forms of professional education as well.

FRYER, DOUGLAS. Vocational self-guidance: Planning your life work. With an introduction by Harry Dexter Kitson, and contributed chapters upon the business professions by leading specialists of New York city, and the business professions for women by Lorine Pruette. Philadelphia, London [etc.] J. B. Lippincott company [1925] xvii, 385 p. tables, diagrs. 12°.

The author of this maual develops a plan for vocational self-guidance for the use of both young men and young women, whether in or out of school. The various occupations are described, and tests and analysis charts are inclosed as aids both for self-analysis and occupational analysis.

KELLER, FRANKLIN J. Day schools for young workers; the organization and management of part-time and continuation schools. New York and London, The Century co., 1924. xxiii, 577 p. tables, diagrs., forms. 8°. (The Century vocational series, ed. by C. A. Prosser.)

Doctor Keller is principal of the East Side Continuation School, New York City, and in this book presents the administrative, supervisory, and teaching experience gained in this school, which is the largest school of its kind in the world, serving 12,000 working boys and girls.

LEWIS, ERVIN EUGENE. Personnel problems of the teaching staff. A study of some of the outstanding personnel management problems that arise in the administration and supervision of a public school system. New York and London, The Century co., 1925. xvii, 460 p. tables, diagrs. 8°. (The Century education series, ed. by C. E. Chadsey.)

Public school administration has two major phases—(1) material and (2) personnel. This book deals with the second of these phases, which is the more difficult and the more important of the two, because it includes the body of persons necessary to carry on the school system. Personnel management has been extensively considered in relation to commercial and industrial establishments, but in education it has not received the attention which it deserves. The author covers in a comprehensive way the various aspects of the selection, employment, management, and professional and social status of teachers. Among the problems handled are those relating to home talent in teaching, the married woman teacher, measuring the merit of teachers, and the teacher's load.

MILLIS, WILLIAM A. *and* MILLIS, HARRIETT H. The teaching of high school subjects. New York and London, The Century co., 1925. xviii, 477 p. 8°. (The Century education series, ed. by C. E. Chadsey.)

Doctor Millis is president of Hanover college, Hanover, Ind. His textbook is intended to aid in preparing teachers for service in the smaller high schools where they will have to teach more than one subject. It gives in an elementary way the general principles of high school instruction, and also directions for teaching the specific subjects of the curriculum.

MOORE, ANNIE E. The primary school; the improvement of its organization and instruction. Boston, New York [etc.] Houghton Mifflin company [1925] xii, 340 p. illus., tables, diagrs. 12°.

Prevalent defects in childhood education are pointed out by the author for the purpose of finding a remedy. Good examples of organization and instruction from our public schools are described for the benefit of others. An effort is made to show that modern theories of education are workable wherever directed by intelligence and good will.

PAYNE, ARTHUR F. Organization of vocational guidance. New York, McGraw-Hill book company, 1925. xvi, 438 p. tables, diagrs. 8°.

A comprehensive presentation is here made of the technique and methods of vocational guidance as thus far devised and recommended by authoritative research, experiments, and practice. The volume covers the entire field of vocational guidance, giving the history, evolution, terminology, principles, and assumptions of guidance, and the fields where and means by which guidance is, or should be, employed. Typical chapters are those dealing with the "six main elements of a complete guidance system" and the "ten strategic points in school systems for vocational guidance." The administrative features also receive attention. Ample reading lists are appended to the work.

PRICE, RICHARD REES. The financial support of State universities. A study of the financial resources of State universities in the light of the experience of the universities of the old Northwest Territory, with a suggested policy for the future. Cambridge, Harvard university press, 1924. xv, 205 p. tables. 8°. (Harvard studies in education, pub. under the direction of the Graduate school of education, vol. 6.)

The universities maintained by the States carved out of the old Northwest Territory, Minnesota included, are taken for this study as representative of the financial experiences and present status of State universities in the country at large. This is done on the ground that within that area the American State university as we know it to-day had its origin and principal development. As a preliminary to the historical survey, a descriptive sketch is given of the difficult situation in which the universities of the United States found themselves about the year 1920. Against the historical backbround, there follows an examination of the duty and function of the State university in relation to the whole educational system of the commonwealth. The author concludes that the resources of our States are adequate to continue the support of higher education, and suggests a financial policy to be followed in future for this purpose.

PYLE, WILLIAM HENRY. Nature and development of learning capacity. Baltimore, Warwick & York, 1925. 122 p. illus., tables, diagrs. 12°. (Educational psychology monographs, no. 25.)

The purpose of the studies reported in this book is to discover the nature and course of mental development with particular reference to the development of learning capacity. Among the questions taken up are those of comparative intelligence due to sex and racial differences, and the relative capacity of city and country children.

STORMZAND, MARTIN J. *and* O'SHEA, M. V. How much English grammar? Baltimore, Warwick & York, 1924. 224 p. tables, diagrs. 12°.

An investigation of the frequency of usage of grammatical constructions in various types of writing, together with a discussion of the teaching of grammar in the elementary and the high school. The purpose is to show how much and what phases of grammar should be stressed in language and grammar courses.

WASHINGTON : GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE : 1925

Some of the Educational and Scientific Associations Which Meet During the Spring of 1925

AMERICAN ACADEMY OF POLITICAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCE:
President, Leo S. Rowe, Director Pan American Union, Washington, D. C.; *Secretary*, J. P. Lichtenberger, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia; meeting, Philadelphia, May 15–16, 1925.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR STUDY OF THE FEEBLE MINDED:
President, Groves B. Smith, Henry Ford Hospital, Detroit, Mich.; *Secretary*, B. W. Baker, Laconia, N. H.; meeting, Raleigh, N. C., May 8–11, 1925.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF DENTAL SCHOOLS:
President, U. L. Ward, Ann Arbor, Mich.; *Secretary*, DeLos L. Hill, 612 Grant Building, Atlanta, Ga.; meeting, Chicago, Ill., March, 1925.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF MUSEUMS:
President, Chauncey J. Hamlin, 110 Delaware Ave., Buffalo, N. Y.; *Secretary*, Laurence V. Coleman, 2 West 46th St., New York, N. Y.; meeting, St. Louis, Mo., May 17–21, 1925.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITY WOMEN:
President, Aurelia H. Reinhardt, Mills College, Calif.; *Secretary*, Mina Kerr, 1634 Eye St. NW., Washington, D. C.; meeting, Indianapolis, Ind., April 8–11, 1925.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF WORKERS FOR THE BLIND:
President, Robert B. Irwin, 41 Union Square, W., New York, N. Y.; *Secretary*, Charles B. Hayes, 41 Union Square, W., New York, N. Y.; meeting, New York, N. Y., June, 1925.

AMERICAN CHEMICAL SOCIETY:
President, L. H. Baekeland, 247 Park Ave., New York, N. Y.; *Secretary*, Charles L. Parsons, 1709 G St. NW., Washington, D. C.; meeting, Baltimore, Md., April 5–10, 1925.

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION:
President, C. R. Mann, 26 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.; *Secretary*, H. W. Tyler, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Mass.; meeting, Washington, D. C., May 1, 1925.

AMERICAN HUMANE EDUCATION SOCIETY:
President, Francis H. Rowley, 180 Longwood Ave., Boston, Mass.; *Secretary*, Guy Richardson, 180 Longwood Ave., Boston, Mass.; meeting, Boston, Mass., March 31, 1925.

AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION:
President, William A. Pusey, 7 West Madison St., Chicago, Ill.; *Secretary*, Olin West, 535 North Dearborn St., Chicago, Ill.; meeting, Atlantic City, N. J., May 25–29, 1925.

ASSOCIATION OF CHURCH DIRECTORS AND MINISTERS OF RELIGIOUS EDUCATION:
President, C. I. Hellstrom, East Orange, N. J.; *Secretary*, Edna L. Acheson, 414 West 121st St., New York, N. Y.; meeting, Detroit, Mich., April 22, 1925.

ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES FOR NEGRO YOUTH:
President, Joseph L. Peacock, Shaw University, Raleigh, N. C.; *Secretary*, J. T. Cater, Talladega College, Talladega, Ala.; meeting, Raleigh, N. C., April, 1925.

CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION OF NEW ENGLAND:
President, Paul Nixon, Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Me.; *Secretary*, Monroe N. Wetmore, Williams College, Williamstown, Mass.; meeting, Cambridge, Mass., April 3–4, 1925.

CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION OF THE ATLANTIC STATES:
President, Evan T. Sage, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.; *Secretary*, Charles Knapp, Barnard College, New York, N. Y.; meeting, Swarthmore, Pa., May 1–2, 1925.

CONVENTION OF AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF:
President, N. F. Walker, Cedar Springs, S. C.; *Secretary*, Ignatius Bjorlee, Frederick, Md.; meeting, Council Bluffs, Iowa, June, 1925.

EASTERN ARTS ASSOCIATION:
President, A. H. Wentworth, 169 Church St., New Haven, Conn.; *Secretary*, F. E. Mathewson, Dickinson High School, Jersey City, N. J.; meeting, Springfield, Mass., April 23–25, 1925.

EASTERN COMMERCIAL TEACHERS ASSOCIATION:
President, Harry L. Jacobs, Providence, R. I.; *Secretary*, Frank A. Tibbetts, Dickinson High School, Jersey City, N. J.; meeting, Philadelphia, Pa., April 9–11, 1925.

EASTERN MUSIC SUPERVISORS CONFERENCE:
President, Richard W. Grant, State College, Pa.; *Secretary*, Bertridge Tucker, 14 Brookway, Nutley, N. J.; meeting, New Haven, Conn., March 18–20, 1925.

EDUCATIONAL CONFERENCE, COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, COLUMBUS, OHIO:
Chairman, George F. Arps; *Secretary*, P. R. Stevenson; meeting, April 2–4, 1925.

MIDDLE WEST SOCIETY OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND HYGIENE:
President, J. Anna Norris, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.; *Secretary*, Floyd A. Rowe, Board of Education, Cleveland, Ohio; meeting, Chicago, Ill., April 9–11, 1925.

MUSIC SUPERVISORS NATIONAL CONFERENCE:
President, William Breach, Winston-Salem, N. C.; *Secretary*, Grace V. Wilson, Topeka, Kans.; meeting, Kansas City, Mo., March 30–April 4, 1925.

NATIONAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES:
President, A. A. Michelson, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.; *Secretary*, David White, U. S. Geological Survey, Washington, D. C.; meeting, Washington, D. C., April, 1925.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF ACCREDITED COMMERCIAL SCHOOLS:
President, B. F. Williams, Des Moines, Iowa; *Secretary*, H. E. V. Porter, Jamestown, N. Y.; meeting, Asheville, N. C., June, 1925.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF PUBLIC SCHOOL BUSINESS OFFICIALS:
President, R. M. Milligan, St. Louis, Mo.; *Secretary*, John S. Mount, State House, Trenton, N. J.; meeting, Kansas City, Mo., May 19–24, 1925.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK:
President, W. J. Norton, 316 East Jefferson Ave., Detroit, Mich.; *Secretary*, W. H. Parker, 25 East 9th St., Cincinnati, Ohio; meeting, Denver, Colo., June 10–17, 1925.

NATIONAL CONGRESS OF PARENTS AND TEACHERS:
President, Mrs. A. H. Reeve, 7700 Lincoln Drive, Chestnut Hill, Philadelphia, Pa.; *Secretary*, Mrs. A. C. Watkins, 1201 16th St. NW., Washington, D. C.; meeting, Austin, Tex., April 27–May 2, 1925.

NATIONAL UNIVERSITY EXTENSION ASSOCIATION:
President, Harold G. Ingham, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kans.; *Secretary*, James A. Moyer, State House, Boston, Mass.; meeting, Lawrence, Kans., April 29–May 1, 1925.

NEW ENGLAND HISTORY TEACHERS ASSOCIATION:
President, Albert Farnsworth, Worcester, Mass.; *Secretary*, Horace Kidger, Newton High School, Newtonville, Mass.; meeting, March 21, 1925.

NEW ENGLAND MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION:
President, Charles W. French, 525 Boylston St., Boston, Mass.; *Secretary*, Michael S. Donlon, 18 Sharon St., West Medford, Mass.; meeting, Boston, Mass., May 9, 1925.

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS:
President, Charles H. Judd, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.; *Secretary*, Harry Morehouse Gage, Coe College, Cedar Rapids, Iowa; meeting, March 21, 1925.

NORTHWEST ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY AND HIGHER SCHOOLS:
President, Bruce E. Milliken, Great Falls, Mont.; *Secretary*, Philip Soulen, Moscow, Idaho; meeting, Spokane, Wash., April 8–10, 1925.

PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION ASSOCIATION:
President, Eugene R. Smith, Brookline, Mass.; *Secretary*, N. B. Hawkins, 10 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.; meeting, Philadelphia, Pa., April 23–25, 1925.

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION ASSOCIATION:
President, D. J. Cowling, Northfield, Minn.; *Secretary*, T. G. Soares, 308 North Michigan Ave., Chicago, Ill.; meeting, Milwaukee, Wis., April 22–25, 1925.

SCHOOLMEN'S WEEK (University of Pennsylvania):
President, Arthur J. Jones, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.; *Secretary*, LeRoy A. King, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.; meeting, Philadelphia, Pa., March 26–28, 1925.

SOCIETY FOR THE PROMOTION OF ENGINEERING EDUCATION:
President, A. A. Potter, Purdue University, LaFayette, Ind.; *Secretary*, L. F. Bishop, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.; meeting, Schenectady, N. Y., June 16–19, 1925.

SOCIETY OF PROGRESSIVE ORAL ADVOCATES:
President, M. A. Goldstein, St. Louis, Mo.; *Secretary*, Mrs. Owen Young, 5307 Maryland Ave., Chicago, Ill.; meeting, Detroit, Mich., June, 1925.

WESTERN ARTS ASSOCIATION:
President, Frank C. Stanton, Dayton, Ohio; *Secretary*, Raymond T. Fell, Bloom Junior High School, Cincinnati, Ohio; meeting, Memphis, Tenn., May 5–8, 1925.

EDUCATION DEFINED

EDUCATION by means of institutions of learning is the principal agency which society has evolved to assure social progress. Education, when thus conceived, has three distinct aspects: (1) Giving to the largest possible number of people a basis for effective membership in the social group—general education; (2) giving the members of society the training whereby they may render most effective service in the several vocations—vocational and professional training; and (3) pushing forward the boundaries of knowledge, thus making possible further and further advances of human achievement—research.

The place of higher education is to take up the first and second aspects where the high schools leave them and, in cooperation with research agencies outside the universities, to assume responsibility for the third aspect. It thus becomes clear that the training for social leadership of those who carry their education beyond high school and giving to them a thorough preparation in those vocations which depend for their success upon the completion of at least a high-school education are functions of higher education; but above all, research and training students for research are functions peculiar to higher education.

—From An Educational Survey of the University of Pennsylvania, 1924.